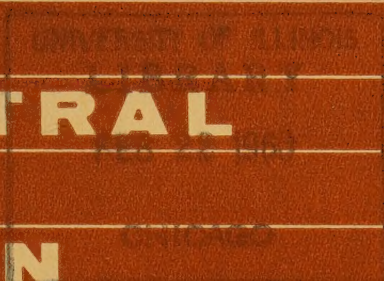


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NORTH CENTRAL

ASSOCIATION

Quarterly



Forty-fifth Annual Meeting

March 28-April 1, 1960

Theme: *"Improving School-College Articulation"*

VOLUME XXXIV

JANUARY, 1960

NUMBER 3

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**Official Organ
of the
North Central Association
of Colleges
and Secondary Schools**

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY is published by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in July, October, January, and April. It is the official organ of the Association, and contains the proceedings of the annual meeting of the Association, together with much additional material directly related to the work of the Association. The regular subscription price is \$4.00 a year. The July number is priced at \$1.75; the others, \$1.00 each. All members of the Association—institutional and individual—are entitled to receive the QUARTERLY as part of their annual fees. A special subscription price of \$3.00 per year is permitted to school libraries, college libraries, and public libraries and to individuals connected with North Central Association membership institutions. Subscription orders may be sent to the Executive and Editorial Office.

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**The
NORTH CENTRAL
ASSOCIATION
Quarterly**

January 1960

VOLUME XXXIV, NUMBER 3

Association Notes and Comment

**Charles Willis Boardman
1885-1959**

CHARLES BOARDMAN is dead. On November 23, the day before Thanksgiving, six of us, chosen from all his friends, silently bore him up a snowy knoll and laid him to eternal rest in beautiful Lakeside Cemetery, Minneapolis. He had died a month to the day after suffering a massive stroke while readying for the day's work as executive secretary of the Association, a post he had held for not quite eight years.

Who can write adequately about this valiant friend? What are the real dimensions of any man? He moved among us, was one of us, and yet, as with everyone, only dimly could we understand the totality that was his. Of course we can cite his manifest qualities—his keen humor, his camaraderie, his sense of responsibility, his steadfastness of purpose, his loyalty to the Association, and yet more; but these are only symbols of the inner man.

The North Central Association does not incautiously choose individuals for high office. Charles served a long and distinguished novitiate for his last post, proving his worthiness over the years

first as a member of the Commission on Secondary Schools, then as chairman of that Commission, and then as president of the Association, before he accepted the exacting duties of the executive secretaryship in 1952.

A year before his death, the University of Minnesota conferred on him its award for distinguished service. He joined that faculty in 1924 and served until his retirement from active duty thirty years later.

Such standard publications as *Who's Who in America*, *Who's Who in Education*, and the Minneapolis papers record further facts of his personal and professional life.

Charles bore all his honors modestly; indeed, modesty, even humility, was one of his chief characteristics—a fact clearly evident to those who associated most intimately with him as the years came and went.

So now—

Life,—we've been long together,
Through pleasant and through cloudy weather;
'Tis hard to part when friends are dear;
Perhaps 'twill cost a sigh, a tear;
Then steal away, give little warning,
Choose thine own time;
Say not, "Good Night"—but in some brighter clime,
Bid me, "Good Morning."

Thus might Charles have spoken.
Requiescat in pace.

HARLAN C. KOCH

RECOMMENDED CONSTITUTIONAL CHANGES

A. PROPOSED MODIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISION REGARDING MEMBERSHIP OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

(Submitted by the Executive Committee)

ON JULY 26, 1959, in session at Chicago, the Executive Committee of the Association approved the proposal that Article IV, Section 3, first paragraph, be amended. At present the paragraph in question reads as follows:

Section 3. The Executive Committee

The Executive Committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools shall consist of the president, the vice president, the president of the Association during the preceding year, the treasurer, the editor of *THE QUARTERLY*, the chairman and the secretary of each of the commissions provided for in Article IV, Section 2, and four additional members, one of whom shall be elected each year for a term of four years. Qualifications for membership on the Executive Committee shall be the same as prescribed for officers of the Association in Article IV, Section 1.

The proposed revision reads as follows:

Section 3. The Executive Committee

The Executive Committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools shall

consist of the president, the vice president, the president of the Association during the preceding year, the treasurer *ex officio* and without vote, the editor of *THE QUARTERLY* *ex officio* and without vote, the chairman and the secretary of each of the Commissions provided for in Article IV, Section 2, provided that when the secretary of a commission is paid he shall be *ex officio* and without vote. In addition each Commission shall elect two members for terms of four years and when there is a paid secretary without vote the Commission shall also elect a third member for a four-year term. Each Commission shall determine the method of election of its members of the Executive Committee. The Executive Committee shall determine the dates of the beginning of the terms so as to maintain a sequence of four-year terms, with two new members each year and a smooth transition from the present membership to the new. Qualifications for membership on the Executive Committee shall be the same as prescribed for officers of the Association in Article IV, Section 1.

The Executive Committee plans to present this proposal to the Association for action at the annual meeting in March, 1960.

B. BROADENING MEMBER PARTICIPATION IN THE WORK OF THE COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS

(Submitted by the Committee on Election and Voting Procedures¹ of the Commission on Secondary Schools)

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, originating in 1896, has experienced many changes and great growth during the period of its existence. While there has been no basic change in its original purpose the scope of its activity and the sphere of its influence in the area of education have broadened and deepened with its growth and development. Today, it stands as one of

the major organizations in this nation attempting to develop and maintain high standards of excellence in educational affairs. It is not strange, then, that the "blueprint" of its operation—the Constitution and the *Rules of Procedure*—must be up-dated from time to time to bring its statement of procedures into harmony with current needs and practices.

Some ten years ago members of the Administrative Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools became aware of a growing feeling of dissatisfaction with the Association operation among the rank and file of its membership. Some

¹ Committee members: Wayne C. Blough, Shaw High School, East Cleveland, Ohio; D. E. Field, Logan High School, La Crosse, Wisconsin; Lawrence W. Hanson, Central High School, Grand Forks, North Dakota; L. W. Thomson, High School, Leadville, Colorado; George A. Beck, Central High School, Duluth, Minnesota, (Chairman).

of the causes of this feeling seemed to be readily apparent. However, the need for a thorough understanding of the attitudes of the membership seemed to be essential to the welfare of the Association. Accordingly, the Administrative Committee assigned to the Cooperating Committee on Research² the responsibility of learning the true feeling of the membership toward the work of the Commission and the Association. This Committee reported the results of its revealing study to the entire membership in the January, 1955, *QUARTERLY* (Vol. XXIX, Number 3): "What Member Schools Think of the N.C.A.," an article written by the Committee Chairman, Stephen T. Romine.

The members of the Administrative Committee—and others—thoroughly studied this report of the Cooperating Committee on Research to determine what remedial action seemed appropriate. Constantly recurring was the thought expressed in this sentence from the Romine report . . . "more responsibility for making and executing policies should be placed in the hands of administrators representing member schools."

The same viewpoint was expressed later by another committee appointed by the Executive Committee to study Association relationships and problems. This committee (Ira L. Baldwin, Wisconsin, Chairman; R. F. Lewis, Wisconsin; Nelson Snider, Indiana; Fred Murphy, Indiana; Stephen Romine, Colorado) included this statement in their comprehensive report: "The feeling has spread noticeably throughout many of the member states that the thousands of member secondary schools and the Secondary Commission members working closely with them, appear to have a very minor voice in the affairs of the Association and the Executive Committee. . . ."

It was readily apparent that the Commission on Secondary Schools had outgrown its "blueprint" again and that changes were needed in our *Rules of Pro-*

cedure and Article IV, Section 5 of the Constitution to bring them into harmony with current needs and practices. Accordingly the Chairman of the Commission was authorized at the June 17, 1957, meeting of the Administrative Committee to appoint a Committee on Election and Voting Procedures.

This Committee has been working on its assignment since September 29, 1957. During its work it has held before itself the objective of attempting to contribute to the building of a stronger Association. If there has been a central theme in the thinking of the Committee it is probably best expressed by the words "increased participation."

The need for extended work on the Constitution and the Rules of Procedure was readily apparent to the Committee as it studied its problems. Documents such as these gradually fail in many ways to meet changing conditions. Stop-gap measures begin to appear; loose ends are discovered; tradition and custom grow into unwritten law; and the letter-of-the-law and practice separate from each other by ever-increasing distance.

This committee has attempted to retain and put into the Constitution (Article IV *Section 5*,—*Commission on Secondary Schools*) the *framework* for operation of the Commission for a long time to come. Conversely, we have attempted to place in the *Rules of Procedure method and detail* and items which yield to change more rapidly than constitutional provisions. We have also attempted to tie up loose ends and to foresee and plan for situations which may arise because of these proposals, or by any other reason. However, we realize that we are not clairvoyant and that changes in any material are bound to be necessary sooner or later.

A number of proposals involving new procedures—or ideas—are included in this material. In each case they have been included in response to what we believed to be a real need. Generally, these proposals have revolved around the idea of creating greater interest on the part of member-school representatives in the

² Stephen Romine, Colorado, (Chairman); L. A. VanDyke, Iowa; F. L. Simmons, Ohio; H. Pat Wardlaw, Missouri; Leon S. Waskin, Michigan.

work of the Association. We realize fully that we cannot legislate participation. But we also know that we cannot get it unless the organizational framework is there to make greater participation possible. This framework we have tried to provide.

In these proposals we have attempted,

in all earnestness, to bring clarity, logical arrangement, and convenience into Article IV, Section 5, of the Constitution, and the *Rules of Procedure*. Chiefly, this has been done through grouping items dealing with specific problems. This procedure has resulted in the following major topic outline:

THE CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE IV. OFFICERS, COMMISSIONS, AND COMMITTEES

Section 5—The Commission on Secondary Schools

1. *The Commission on Secondary Schools*
2. *The Officers of the Commission on Secondary Schools*
3. *The Administrative Committee*
4. *The State Committees*
5. *The Members-at-Large Group*
6. *The Nominating Committee*
7. *The Executive Committee Representation*
8. *Committees of the Commission*
9. *The Annual Business Meeting*
10. *Referendum Vote*

RULES OF PROCEDURE

COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS

- I. Object
- II. Organization
- III. Structure of Units of the Commission
- IV. Election and Appointment Procedures
- V. Length of Terms for Commission Officers
- VI. Duties and Responsibilities of Organizational Units and Officers
- VII. The Annual Business Meeting
- VIII. Referendum Vote
- IX. Quorum
- X. Amendments

In view of the fact that the entire format of Article IV, Section 5, of the Constitution and the Rules of Procedure is altered, it is not practical to present a line-by-line comparative statement of the proposed changes. In lieu of such a statement, we are listing some of the major differences between the present documents and the proposals. It is suggested that the present documents, as listed in the July issue of THE QUARTERLY, be compared with the proposals included in this article. Such examination will give a complete picture of the proposals in comparison with the present format and content of these documents.*

THE CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE IV. OFFICERS, COMMISSIONS, AND COMMITTEES

Section 5—The Commission on Secondary Schools

Some major constitutional changes are these:

1. A *Members-at-Large Group* replaces the "18 other persons elected by the Commission." The proposed group is to be elected *directly by the several states*. It is to meet annually at the time of the annual meet-

* Article IV, Section 5. *The Commission on Secondary Schools*, is inserted for comparison on page 197.—
EDITOR

- ing and serve in an advisory capacity to the Administrative Committee. This is a "grass-roots" representative group composed of member-school representatives.
2. The position of Vice-Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools is re-established as a working position.
 3. Provides for expanded Commission representation on the Executive Committee.
 4. Provides for *election* rather than appointment of the Nominating Committee of the Commission.
 5. Establishes Constitutional Authority in the following areas, among others:
 - A. The Annual Business Meeting including
 - (1) the voting franchise;
 - (2) making the annual business meeting an open meeting for all member-school representatives;
 - (3) provision for necessary special executive sessions of the Commission;
 - (4) election of officers of the Commission at the Commission and state levels;
 - (5) handling of the general and specific business of the Commission.
 - B. State Committees and State Advisory Committees; and
 - C. Referendum voting.
 6. Places detail of elections, appointments, terms of office, and duties, in the *Rules of Procedure*.
 7. Places in the Constitution those major items involving the general structure of the Commission.
 8. Organizes the material in the Constitution and the *Rules of Procedure* in orderly, logical, usable manner.

RULES OF PROCEDURE

Some major changes in the *Rules of Procedure* are these:

1. Provides larger representation of member schools on the Commission on Secondary Schools.
2. Gives representation of Dependents' Schools on the Commission.
3. Increases member-school representation on the Administrative Committee.
4. Increases representation of the Commission on the Executive Committee of the Association.
5. Establishes an "open door" policy for member-school representatives at the Annual Business Meeting.
6. Sets up and legalizes Advisory Committees in each state.
7. Provides a clear-cut statement of election and appointment procedures and groups them in one place.
8. Provides for the *election* of the Commission's Nominating Committee.
9. Provides for nominations for all Commission officers *within the several states*. Final nominations are to be made by the Nominating Committee *from the compiled list of nominees made by the states*.
10. Provides for *equitable representation* for each state.
11. Changes the term of Commission officers to one year and provides for succession from Vice-Chairman, to Chairman, to Past Chairman, subject to election by the Commission.
12. Provides for the election of the Executive Secretary.
13. Specifies the length of term of office for the State Chairman.
14. Provides detail of election, duties, and operation of the *new* Members-At-Large Group.
15. Groups like items in logical, easy-to-use, clear-cut manner.
16. Increases the over-all opportunity for participation of member-school representatives in Association affairs. This is the desired opportunity so often expressed by member-school representatives, reported in the Romine Report.

It is not possible to compress into a few items the full import of the changes involved in these proposals. It is our hope that each member-school representative will study the proposals to gain a clear understanding of their extent and their purposes. The *Rules of Procedure* (except where constitutional changes are involved) were approved and adopted at the 1959 Annual Meeting of the Commission on Secondary Schools. The proposed changes in the Constitution have been approved by the Commission on Secondary Schools and by the Executive Committee of the Association. They will be presented for consideration by the entire Association at its next Annual Meeting. Should these items receive approval the entire program will become effective at the close of the next Annual Meeting to be held March 28–April 1, 1960, unless some other effective date be specified. Your first opportunity to participate in this program will come when you are called upon to cast your vote at the meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools indicated above.

Presented herewith are the proposals regarding the full text of the Constitution—Article IV, Section 5—and the *Rules of Procedure* of the Commission on Secondary Schools.

THE CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE IV. OFFICERS, COMMISSIONS, AND COMMITTEES

Section 5—The Commission on Secondary Schools

The Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools shall be constituted and operated as described in this section of the Constitution of the Association and in the Rules of Procedure of this Commission.

1. The Commission on Secondary Schools shall include the following groups:
 - A. All members of the several State Committees on Secondary Schools
 - B. All members of the Members-at-Large Group
 - C. All members of the Administrative Committee

Members of these groups shall be elected or appointed to office and serve in the manner described in the Rules of Procedure of this Commission.
2. The officers of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be as follows:
 - A. Chairman
 - B. Vice-Chairman
 - C. Past-Chairman
 - D. Executive Secretary (employed, non-voting; or not employed, voting)

The manner of election, duties, and terms of office shall conform to the specifications set up in the Rules of Procedure of this Commission.
3. The interim executive committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be known as *The Administrative Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools*. The membership, manner of election or appointment, duties, and term of office, shall conform to the provisions of the Rules of Procedure of the Commission dealing with this section of the Constitution.
4. The business of the Commission within the several states shall be carried on between annual meetings by State Committees. These committees shall be assisted by State Advisory Committees. The manner of election or appointment, tenure of office, and responsibility of committee members shall be as set forth in the Rules of Procedure of this Commission.
5. There shall be a Members-at-Large Group in the Commission on Secondary Schools. The election or appointment, tenure of office, and responsibility of the members of this group shall be as set forth in the Rules of Procedure of this Commission.
6. The Nominating Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be elected by the Administrative Committee at its June meeting. The duties and procedures of this committee shall be those set forth in the Rules of Procedure of this Commission.
7. The Commission on Secondary Schools shall be represented on the Executive Committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in the manner specified in Article IV, Section 3, of the Constitution of the Association.
The manner of election or appointment of such representatives and their responsibilities shall be as set forth in the Rules of Procedure of this Commission.
8. Special or Standing Committees may be elected or appointed by the several administrative units of this Commission as the need arises.
9. The Annual Business Meeting
 - A. Admission
Official delegates of all member schools shall be admitted to business sessions of the Commission on Secondary Schools but shall not have the right to vote unless they are members of the Commission. However, at the call of the Administrative Committee, special executive sessions of the Commission on Secondary Schools may be convened to deal with matters of emergency and/or necessity.
 - B. All members of the Commission shall have the right of ballot.
 - C. Election of officers and representatives of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be held at the annual meeting, except that Members of State Committees, State Advisory Committees, and the Members-at-Large Group of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be elected within the several states.
 - D. The Commission shall consider and sit upon such other business as may legitimately come before it.
10. Referendum votes on all matters requiring such votes shall be conducted by mail.

FOR COMPARISON WITH FOREGOING PROPOSAL

Article IV, Section 5, unamended, reads as follows:

ARTICLE IV. OFFICERS, COMMISSIONS
AND COMMITTEES

Section 5. The Commission on Secondary Schools

The Commission on Secondary Schools shall consist of the members of the Committee on Secondary Schools for each of the several states comprising the territory of the Association and eighteen other persons elected by the Commission subject to the approval of the Association for a period of three years, one-third of this number to be elected each year.

The State Committee on Secondary Schools shall consist of:

1. A member of the faculty of the state university whose assignment is in the field of secondary education, to be nominated by the president of the university;
2. the director of secondary education of the state department of public instruction or in case there is no such officer, a member of the staff of the commissioner of education or superintendent of public instruction, designated by him;
3. and, for states having fewer than 300 high schools accredited by the Association, three administrative heads of secondary schools accredited by the Association; and, for states having 300 or more high schools accredited by the Association, five administrative heads of secondary schools accredited by the Association.

In the event that the president of the state university should refuse or fail to designate a member of the faculty to serve on the State Committee of Secondary Schools, and/or in the event that the superintendent of public instruction or commissioner of education should refuse or fail to designate a member of his staff to serve on the State Committee, the Ex-

ecutive Committee of the Association shall fill such vacancies by nominating for election by the Association persons recommended by the Commission on Secondary Schools.

The administrative heads of secondary schools to be included in the membership of a State Committee shall be selected for membership by majority vote of the administrators of the member schools of the North Central Association within the state. Their names shall be transmitted to the Secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools by the chairman of the state committee. Upon approval of the Commission on Secondary Schools, the names shall be transmitted to the Executive Committee which shall place the names in nomination for election by the Association. The chairman of each State Committee shall be designated by the Commission on Secondary Schools in accordance with its adopted procedures subject to the approval of the Executive Committee. The term of membership of administrative heads of secondary schools on State Committees shall be three years. No such member shall serve more than two consecutive three-year terms.

No member of the Commission on Secondary Schools may serve for more than six years consecutively, excepting (1) the two members of each State Committee who represent the state university and the state department of public instruction respectively and who automatically shall remain members of the Commission until their retirement from the State Committee, and (2) members of the Administrative Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools, who automatically shall remain members of the Commission until their retirement from the Administrative Committee.

The officers of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be a chairman and a secretary. These officers shall be elected by the Commission in accordance with its

own policies and regulations. The length of term of each officer shall be determined by the Commission.

There shall be an Administrative Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools composed of the chairman of the Commission, *ex officio* chairman of the administrative Committee; the secretary, *ex officio* secretary; the preceding chairman; and four members elected by the Commission at the time of the Annual Meeting of the Association for a period of four years, one member to be elected each year.

The Commission shall prepare for the guidance of member schools and secondary schools seeking the approval of the Association a bulletin setting forth policies, regulations, conditions for accrediting, and criteria for the evaluation of secondary schools. Prior to the publication of this bulletin, it shall be submitted by the Executive Committee to the Association for approval or rejection. The Commission shall receive and consider applications and reports from secondary schools within the territory of the Association seeking approval for membership in the Association; shall make such examinations and evaluations of these schools as it deems necessary; shall make such examinations or evaluations of member schools as conditions may require; shall request periodic

reports from member schools; shall prepare a list of secondary schools recommended by the Commission for accrediting by the Association; shall submit this list to the Executive Committee for submission to the Association for final approval; shall submit to the Executive Committee for final approval by the Association the lists of members elected by the Commission; shall submit its proposed budget to the Executive Committee for approval; and shall make and publish studies of educational problems approved by the Executive Committee.

The Commission on Secondary Schools may, with the approval of the Executive Committee, grant a secondary school the necessary freedom to carry on any educational experiment that the Commission has approved.

During the interval between the Annual Meetings of the Association, the Administrative Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall have the authority to carry on the necessary business of the Commission on Secondary Schools. During this interval, the secretary of the Commission shall have the authority to interpret policies, regulations, and criteria. Any appeal from the interpretations and decisions of the secretary of the commission shall be made to the Executive Committee.

RULES OF PROCEDURE

Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools

ARTICLE I

Object

The object of the Commission shall be to represent the member secondary schools in their relations with the Association and to encourage and assist these schools in the development, maintenance, and continued improvement of a program of secondary education that will satisfy the needs, interests, and abilities of the individual pupils.

ARTICLE II

Organization

The Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools shall be constituted and operated as described in the Rules of Procedure of the Commission on Secondary Schools.

ARTICLE III

Structure of Units of the Organization

Section 1. COMPOSITION OF THE COMMISSION

The Commission on Secondary Schools shall include the following groups.

- A. All members of the several State Committees on Secondary Schools
- B. All members of the Members-at-Large Group
- C. All members of the Administrative Committee

Section 2. COMPOSITION OF STATE COMMITTEES ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS

A. *The State Committees shall consist of:*

- (1) A member of the Department of Education of the State University who has an assignment in secondary education.
- (2) A member of the State Department of Education who has an assignment in secondary education.
- (3) Administrative heads of secondary schools at a ratio of three members in states having fewer than 300 high schools accredited by the Association and five members in states having 300 or more high schools accredited by the Association.
- (4) The Dependents Schools Committee shall have the status of a regular state committee during the period of its existence. (This clause shall be eliminated from the Rules of Procedure without further action when this Committee is discontinued.)

B. *State Advisory Committees*

Each state shall set up an Advisory Committee.

Section 3. COMPOSITION OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE COMMITTEE

The Administrative Committee shall include the following categories.

- A. Officers of the Commission on Secondary Schools—i.e.—(Chairman, Vice-Chairman, Past Chairman, Executive Secretary (employed, non-voting or not employed, voting).
- B. Two eligible high school principals.
- C. Two eligible college and university representatives.
- D. Two eligible State Department of Education representatives.

Section 4. COMPOSITION OF REPRESENTATION ON THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Representation of the Commission on Secondary Schools on the Executive Committee of the North Central Association shall include the following categories:

- A. The Chairman of the Commission
- B. The Executive Secretary of the Commission (without vote)
- C. Three eligible members of the Commission on Secondary Schools, as specified in Article IV, Section 7 of the Rules of Procedure.

ARTICLE IV

Election and Appointment Procedures

Section 1. STATE COMMITTEES

A. The state university representative shall be nominated by the president of the university.

The names of all nominees shall be submitted to the Administrative Committee for transmission to the Commission on Secondary Schools for ratification.

B. The State Department of Education representative shall be nominated by the chief school officer of the Department of Public Instruction.

The names of all nominees shall be submitted to the Administrative Committee for transmission to the Commission on Secondary Schools for ratification.

C. In the event that the president of the state university should refuse or fail to designate a member of the faculty to serve on the State Committee on Secondary Schools, and/or in the event that the superintendent of public instruction or commissioner of education should refuse or fail to designate a member of his staff to serve on the state committee, the Administrative Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall fill such vacancies by nominating for election by the Association persons recommended by the state committee or committees concerned.

D. The administrative heads of secondary schools to be included in the membership of official state committees shall be selected by majority vote of the administrators of the member

schools of the North Central Association within the several states. Election shall be conducted by the state committees in their respective states.

The majority of the elective members of the several official state committees shall be principals of member schools.

The names of all individuals so elected shall be submitted to the Administrative Committee for transmission to the Commission on Secondary Schools for ratification.

- E. The Dependents Schools Committee members shall be nominated by the Administrative Committee.

The names of all nominees shall be submitted to the Commission on Secondary Schools for ratification.

- F. The Chairmen of the state committees shall be the representative of either the State University or the State Department of Public Education and shall be selected by a majority vote of the state committee, subject to the approval of the Executive Committee of the Association.

G. Vacancies

- (1) In the event of a vacancy in the chairmanship of a State Committee during the term of office of the incumbent, the State Committee shall elect a chairman to complete the unexpired term. The meeting for this purpose shall be called by the secondary school representative having the longest tenure on the committee.
- (2) In the event of a vacancy in the appointive personnel of a State Committee the chairman shall request the responsible authority to nominate a replacement for the vacancy.
- (3) In the event of a vacancy in the elected personnel of a State Committee, the Committee shall conduct a special election in a manner specified for regular elections for this position in order to fill the vacancy.
- (4) The Executive Secretary of the Commission shall keep a record of the terms of office of State Committee members and the chairman of the Committee and shall notify the Committee of the date of expiration of such terms of office at the appropriate time.

Section 2. STATE ADVISORY COMMITTEES

Each state shall set up an Advisory Committee to serve in an advisory capacity with the state committee. These committees shall be selected in the manner set forth by the official state committees in the several states. The number of Advisory Committee members shall be determined by each state.

Section 3. MEMBERS-AT-LARGE GROUP

- A. Two eligible individuals shall be elected from each of the several states. One of the two selected from each state must be a principal of a member school preferably serving currently on the State Advisory Committee. The other may be any eligible administrative head of a secondary school; a state department of education representative; or a state university representative; not serving currently on the State Committee.

Nomination and election of members of this group shall be carried out by use of mail nomination and ballot (or in the manner adopted by the individual states) under the direction of and by the several state committees. The names of all individuals so elected shall be submitted to the Administrative Committee for transmission to the Commission on Secondary Schools for ratification.

- B. Two individuals shall be elected from the Dependents Schools organizations by the Administrative Committee. At least one of the representatives must be a principal of a member school.

The names of all so elected shall be transmitted to the Commission on Secondary Schools for ratification.

Section 4. THE COMMISSION OFFICERS

- A. The Officers of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be
- (1) Chairman
 - (2) Vice-Chairman
 - (3) Past-Chairman
 - (4) Executive Secretary (non-voting if employed or voting if not employed.)
- B. All officers (except the Executive Secretary) shall be elected by the Commission on Secondary Schools at the Annual meeting of the Association. Nominees for these positions shall be selected by the Nominating Committee in the manner set forth under Article VI, Section 8 of the Rules of Procedure.
- C. Every other year the chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be a principal of a member school. The chairman on alternate years shall be, in rotation, an eligible college or university representative and an eligible member of a state department of education.

- D. A definite order of succession is established for the following officers of this Association:
- (1) At the end of the term of office of the vice-chairman he shall become the chairman.
 - (2) At the end of the term of office of the chairman he shall become the past-chairman.

Section 5. THE ADMINISTRATIVE COMMITTEE

A. *Officers*

The officers of the Commission on Secondary Schools, as specified in Section 4, shall be the officers of the Administrative Committee. They are:

- (1) Chairman of the Commission
- (2) Vice-Chairman of the Commission
- (3) Past-Chairman of the Commission
- (4) The Executive Secretary of the Commission (non-voting, if employed or voting, if not employed).

The manner of election or appointment of these officers is set forth in Article IV, Section 5 of the Rules of Procedure.

B. *Committee Members-at-Large*

- (1) Two eligible high school principals; two eligible college or university representatives; and two eligible State Department of Education representatives. They shall be elected by the Commission at annual meetings, in the proper order, from the list of nominees presented by the Nominating Committee prepared in conformity with its directed procedures.
- (2) Election of all of the committee members in the three categories shall be on a staggered basis. In establishing this procedure one of the individuals in each category shall be elected for a three-year term and one for a four-year term. Thereafter, elections shall be held upon the expiration of the three-year term of each individual. This will result in elections the first two years in each three-year sequence regularly.

- C. The Executive Secretary shall be selected by the Administrative Committee, subject to confirmation of the Commission on Secondary Schools. If he is an employed secretary he shall not have the right to vote in any meeting of the Association nor shall he hold any other office in the Association except that he may serve as Chairman of the Dependents Schools Committee.

The duties of this office shall be set forth by the Administrative Committee to conform at all times to the needs of the Commission.

- D. In the event of a vacancy in the chairmanship of the Commission on Secondary Schools, the Vice-Chairman of the Commission shall act as Chairman until the next annual meeting of the Association.

Section 6. THE NOMINATING COMMITTEE

A. *Election of the Committee*

- (1) The Nominating Committee for the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be elected by the Administrative Committee at its June meeting.
- (2) The personnel of the committee shall be published in THE QUARTERLY and in any "news" publications of the Association which may exist, at the earliest feasible time.
- (3) The Executive Secretary shall notify the State Chairmen of the personnel of the Nominating Committee, who shall include the information with the annual report forms sent to member schools.

Section 7. THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE REPRESENTATIVES

- A. Representatives of the Commission on Secondary Schools on the Executive Committee of the Association shall be as follows:

- (1) Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools.
- (2) The Executive Secretary (non-voting)
- (3) Elected from the Commission on Secondary Schools
 - (a) One eligible principal of a secondary school
 - (b) One eligible college or university representative
 - (c) One eligible State Department of Education representative.

In establishing the order of succession for these positions, the first year the principal shall be elected for a four year term; the college or university representative for a three year term; and the State Department of Education representative for a two year term. Thereafter, representatives shall be elected to four year terms upon the expiration of the terms of office in the several classifications.

- B. All of these representatives shall be nominated and elected by the Commission on Secondary Schools in the manner specified for election of general officers of the Commission on Secondary Schools.

Section 8. OTHER COMMITTEES

The Commission and the Administrative Committee may, as the need arises, appoint or elect ad hoc or standing committees for the Commission on Secondary Schools.

ARTICLE V

Length of Terms for Commission Officers

- Section 1. The term of office for the Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be one year. He shall not be eligible to succeed himself.
- Section 2. The term of office for the Vice-Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be one year. He shall not be eligible to succeed himself.
- Section 3. The term of office for the Past-Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be one year.
- Section 4. The term of office for the Executive Secretary (employed or not employed) of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be three years. He may be re-appointed at the discretion of the Administrative Committee and the Commission on Secondary Schools.
- Section 5. The term of office for Members-at-Large on the Administrative Committee shall be three years. They shall not be eligible to succeed themselves.
- Section 6. The term of office for Members-at-Large on the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be three years. They shall not be eligible for re-election. In a time series of three years, 14 shall be elected each of the first two years and 12 the third year.
- A. The Vice-Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall serve as the chairman of the Members-at-Large group.
- B. A temporary secretary shall be selected by the group to record and transmit its actions, as directed by the Members-at-Large group.
- Section 7. The term of office for members of the Nominating Committee shall be one year. They shall not be eligible for a successive term.
- Section 8. The term of office for administrative heads of member secondary schools on the State Committees shall be three years. They shall be eligible for not more than two terms.
- State Department of Education Representatives and college and university representatives on the State Committees may serve as long as they are the appointed representatives of their respective institutions or State Departments of Education.
- The term of office for chairmen of State Committees shall be four years. They shall be eligible for a successive term but may continue in office only as long as they are members of State Committees.
- Section 9. The term of office for members of the State Advisory Committees shall be three years. They shall be eligible for not more than two consecutive terms.
- Section 10. Representatives on the Executive Committee of the Association
- A. The Chairman of the Commission shall serve on the Executive Committee of the Association during the term of his office.
- B. The Executive Secretary of the Commission shall serve on the Executive Committee of the Association (without vote) during his term of office.
- C. The term of office for Commission representatives on the Executive Committee of the Association shall be four years. They shall not be eligible to succeed themselves.
- Section 11. The term of office for ad hoc and standing committees appointed by the Commission on Secondary Schools or the Administrative Committee shall be stipulated by the appointing agency.
- Section 12. Transfer of authority from officers of the Association whose terms have expired to their successors shall take place at the close of the annual meeting.

ARTICLE VI

Duties and Responsibilities of Organizational Units and Officers

- Section 1. The Chairman of the Commission shall serve as the chief executive officer of the Commission on Secondary Schools and as Chairman of the Administrative Committee. By virtue of his office he shall be a member of the Executive Committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools during the term of his office. He shall assume the office of Past-Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools at the close of his term as Chairman.
- Section 2. The Vice-Chairman of the Commission shall serve as the assistant to the Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools both on the Commission and on the Administrative Committee, and shall preside at all meetings of the Members-at-Large group at the time of annual meetings. He shall assume the office of Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools at the close of his term as Vice-Chairman.
- Section 3. The Past-Chairman of the Commission shall serve on the Commission on Secondary Schools and on the Administrative Committee during his term of office.
- Section 4. The Executive Secretary of the Commission shall serve as secretary to the Commission on

Secondary Schools and to the Administrative Committee. By virtue of his office he shall sit (without vote) with the Executive Committee during the term of his office. If he is an employed secretary he shall not have the right of ballot at any time nor shall he hold any other office in the Association during his tenure as Executive Secretary except that he may serve as Chairman of the Dependents Schools Committee.

It shall be his duty to carry out the assignments designated by the Commission and the Administrative Committee.

Section 5. The Administrative Committee shall have the authority to carry on the necessary business of the Association between the Annual Meetings of the Commission. In this capacity it shall carry out the specific instructions of the Commission and care for such other matters as may need the attention of the Association. It shall have authority to interpret Policies and Criteria and hear and act on appeals from Commission action. Final appeals may be made to the Executive Committee of the Association in accordance with its stated procedures.

Section 6. The Commission is the legislative body of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. It is its responsibility to prepare and enact legislation designed to carry on in proper fashion the affairs of this unit of the Association. Among its specific responsibilities are those listed herewith:

- A. The Commission shall prepare for the guidance of member schools and secondary schools seeking admission to the Association a bulletin setting forth the policies, criteria, and other requirements essential for accreditation by the Association and for the evaluation of secondary schools. Prior to the publication of this bulletin it shall be submitted to the Executive Committee of the Association for ratification.
- B. The Commission shall receive and consider annual reports from member schools and applications for membership from secondary schools within the territory of the Association. It shall require the filing of annual or other reports with the proper authorities of the Association; make all necessary examination and evaluation of member schools or applicants for membership; and prepare a list of secondary schools recommended by the Commission for accreditation by the Association, such list to be submitted to the Executive Committee for ratification.
- C. It shall have authority to conduct hearings on actions of State Committees and/or Reviewing Committees prior to final action on any case by the Commission at the annual business meeting.
- D. It shall file with the Executive Committee of the Association a complete roster of the officers and members of the Commission.
- E. It shall submit its proposed annual budget to the Executive Committee of the Association for consideration and action.
- F. It may receive and act upon applications from member secondary schools requesting permission to carry on educational experimentation within such school or schools.
- G. It shall make and publish studies on educational problems at its own discretion or as requested by the Executive Committee of the Association.
- H. It shall have authority to recommend the membership fee subject to approval of the Executive Committee of the Association and of the North Central Association at its annual business meeting.

Section 7. The Members-at-Large Group of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall meet as a separate group at each of the Annual Meetings of the Association to study such matters as the members consider important and necessary for the welfare of member schools and the Association.

The result of Committee deliberations shall/may be presented to the Administrative Committee in the form of recommendations.

The members of this group shall be voting members of the Commission on Secondary Schools.

Section 8. The Nominating Committee shall be charged with the following duties and responsibilities:

- A. It shall be the responsibility of the Nominating Committee to see that equitable representation is given to each state. Over a period of years each state shall receive consideration for each office of the Commission.
- B. Nominations shall be made by states, through state committees. They may be made by any person eligible by virtue of proper association with a member secondary school, a college or university, or a state Department of Education.
- C. Each state may submit three nominations for consideration by the Nominating Committee. From the compiled list of nominees received from the states, the Nominating Committee shall prepare a balanced and equitable slate of officers, covering all offices to be filled by vote of the Commission, for presentation to the Commission on Secondary Schools at the time of the annual election.

Nominations shall be accompanied by a statement setting forth the qualifications of the nominee for a North Central Association office.

- D. Nominations shall be made and received following the close of an Annual Meeting of the Association. No nominations shall be received after January 31.
 - E. Nominations shall be forwarded to and recorded officially by the Executive Secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools who shall then forward all nominations to the Chairman of the Nominating Committee.
- Section 9. The State Committees shall be charged with conducting the business of the Association assigned to them by the Commission on Secondary Schools. Among their duties and responsibilities shall be the following:
- A. Supply member schools with all necessary annual report forms, special forms, and other printed materials provided by the Association.
 - B. Assist non-member schools interested in membership to understand the Association and the manner in which applications for membership may be filed.
 - C. Conduct necessary visitation to and evaluation of member schools and those applying for membership for the first time or for re-admittance.
 - D. Receive and examine all manual reports and applications for membership. Through correspondence and personal contact with schools filing reports or new applications, seek to eliminate errors in the reports to the Commission at the annual meeting.
 - E. File the reports with the Executive Secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools at the time specified by the Secretary, together with the recommendation of the State Committee concerning each school filing a report.
 - F. Conduct elections and receive nominations for officers of the Commission as directed by the *Rules of Procedure* including those on a State and the Commission level.
 - G. When feasible, organize and conduct meetings of member schools within the state dealing with the educational and administrative problems of member schools. Endeavor to make the educational leadership of the Association felt at the local level in each member and non-member school.
- Section 10. The State Advisory Committees shall act in an advisory capacity to the official State Committee. This organization should serve as a training ground for future officers of the Association; as liaison between the Association and the member schools; and as a professional and a public relations agency for the cause of education in each state and community.
- Members of these committees are not members of the official State Committees or of the Commission on Secondary Schools.
- Section 11. The Executive Committee Representatives
- A. Representatives of the Commission on Secondary Schools on the Executive Committee of Association shall be responsible
 - (1) for presenting the program and needs of the Commission on Secondary Schools to the Executive Committee
 - (2) for keeping the Commission on Secondary Schools informed on the status of the Commission in relation to the whole Association.
 - (3) for working toward the constructive development of the whole Association.
 - (4) for keeping the Commission informed concerning the work and the professional progress of the Association as a whole.
 - (5) for the performance of such other duties as may devolve upon them in their dual capacity as Commission and Association representatives.

ARTICLE VII

The Annual Business Meeting

Section 1. Admission

Official delegates of all member schools shall be admitted to business sessions of the Commission on Secondary Schools but shall not have the right to vote unless members of the Commission (Administrative Committee, State Committee member, Member-at-Large). However, the Administrative Committee may call special executive sessions of the Commission on Secondary Schools to deal with matters of emergency and/or necessity.

Section 2. All members of the Commission shall have the right to vote.

Section 3. Election of officers and representatives of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be held at the Annual Meeting of the Association, except that members of State Committees, State Advisory Committees, and of the Members-at-Large Group of the Commission on Secondary Schools shall be elected within the several states.

Section 4. The Commission shall consider and act upon such other business as may properly come before it.

ARTICLE VIII

Referendum Vote

Referendum votes on all matters requiring such votes shall be conducted by mail.

ARTICLE IX

Quorum

At any meeting of the Commission a quorum shall consist of one-half of the members of the Commission representing a majority of the member states.

ARTICLE X

Amendments

These *Rules of Procedure* may be amended at any regular meeting of the Commission by a majority vote of the members present provided such amendment has been presented to the Commission and delivered to the Secretary in written form twenty-four hours prior to the vote.

THIRTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE
ADMINISTRATIVE COMMITTEE AND
STATE CHAIRMEN OF THE COMMISSION
ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS
Bismarck, North Dakota
October 25-27, 1959

THE THIRTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING of the Administrative Committee and the State Chairmen of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was held in Bismarck, North Dakota, October 25-27, 1959. This meeting is held annually for the purpose of discussing problems that have arisen during the past year and to study the *Policies, Regulations, and Criteria* to secure a more uniform interpretation and enforcement of these provisions among the nineteen states of the Association.

This is not an official body, but it can and does make recommendations to the Administrative Committee of the Commission. These recommendations are usually approved.

The meeting opened Sunday evening, October 25, with a reception given by Richard K. Klein and the other members of the North Dakota State Committee, along with the faculty of the Bismarck Junior College. It was held in the main building of the Junior College. This was a general get-acquainted meeting. The occasion was most enjoyable.

All business meetings were held in the Senate Chamber of the North Dakota State Capitol Building. At the first business session, on Monday morning, addresses of welcome were given by the Honorable James Morris, Judge of the State Supreme Court, representing the Governor of North Dakota, and by Mr.

M. F. Peterson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who welcomed the group on behalf of the State Department.

Following the last business session, the Administrative Committee met to consider the chairmen's recommendations and any other business in need of attention at that time.

The problems raised by increasing the standards for teachers, and the added burden placed on the teacher training institutions because of this increase were discussed at length. The Executive Secretary was instructed to write the state chairmen requesting that they, with their State Committees, confer with the teacher-training institutions within their respective states to determine how great a problem it is going to be to prepare their students to meet new minimum requirements in major and minor teaching fields, and what plans they have for meeting this problem. The chairmen are to report by March 1, so that a summary may be submitted to the Administrative Committee at its next meeting, March 27, 1960.

The following recommendations of the Administrative Committee and the State Chairmen were approved:

(a) That the study of the junior high school be continued. A questionnaire prepared by Mr. Romine is to be forwarded to the State Chairmen, who will distribute copies to their junior high school principals and superintendents of schools. The principals will return them directly to Mr. Romine. The cost will be charged to the Cooperative Committee on Research.

(b) That the two financial reports by the State Chairmen—one for the Commission on Secondary Schools and one for the Executive Committee of the Associa-

tion—be combined and that the special financial report to the Executive Committee be discontinued.

(c) That no new high school be admitted to membership in the Association with an "advisement."

(d) That no school be admitted to membership that runs a divided term for any purpose, such as harvesting crops, or for any other reason.

(e) That double sessions be not approved except in emergencies, and then only temporarily. Evidence must be presented to show that plans have been made to remedy the situation.

(f) That schools be given one year to meet the new requirements regarding teacher preparation.

The meeting closed on Tuesday evening with a general banquet at the Municipal Country Club, attended by members of the conference, members of the State Committee of the Association, superintendents, principals, members of local boards of education, local members of the State Legislature, judges of the State Supreme Court, representatives of higher education, and prominent businessmen. Mr. Russell F. Lewis, chairman of the Commission, introduced the members of the conference and called on Mr. Stephen A. Romine, vice president of the Association, and Mr. L. A. Van Dyke, member of the Administrative Committee, for brief statements concerning the Association, how it works, and what it stands for. He also discussed the purpose of the annual gathering of state chairmen. Mr. Klein then introduced the guests and asked the State Superintendent of Public Instruction for North Dakota, Mr. Peterson, to extend greetings from the Department.

Organ music was provided throughout the meal by Mrs. Richard K. Klein, and vocal numbers were given by the Bismarck High School Girls' Trio, composed of Barbara Tosterud, Karen Klein, and Elizabeth Bischof.

The final event of the evening was a "Late Show—Film 'North Dakota,'" depicting in color the industrial and farm

life of that state. Everybody thoroughly enjoyed the evening. With the conclusion of this program, the Thirteenth Annual Conference of the Administrative Committee and State Chairmen came to a close.

—ALVA GIBSON, *Executive Secretary*
Commission on Secondary Schools

THE INTER-UNIVERSITY COMMITTEE ON THE SUPERIOR STUDENT

THE INTER-UNIVERSITY COMMITTEE on the Superior Student* is an organization of representatives of publicly supported colleges and universities created to encourage the development of special programs for the superior student in American education—programs customarily referred to as "Honors" programs.

The Committee's work is financed by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation and has its headquarters on the campus of the University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado. The Director is Joseph W. Cohen, on leave from his position as Director of Honors and Professor of Philosophy at the University of Colorado. The Associate Director is Norman D. Kurland, on leave from the Department of History at Hofstra College.

The ICSS publishes a monthly newsletter, *The Superior Student*, which contains information on specific Honors programs and discussions of various phases of education for the gifted at all levels. *The Superior Student* is sent to more than 6,000 persons throughout the country interested in the development of programs for the gifted student. It is sent free of charge upon request.

In addition to the newsletter, the ICSS supplies information on Honors programs to those requesting it, holds national conferences of persons associated with Honors work, and arranges personal visits by its staff to assist schools seeking to establish or revise Honors programs.

* This is a national, not NCA project, and for clarity should not be confused with the Association's activities in this field. Both are financed by Carnegie Grants. The former has to do with college programs; the latter, with high school plans.—
EDITOR.

IMPORTANCE OF TEN AREAS FOR NCA ACTION REGARDING CLOSER HIGH SCHOOL-COLLEGE ARTICULATION

Problem Areas	Level	Very Much			Somewhat			Total		
		No.	Pct.	Rank	No.	Pct.	Rank	No.	Pct.	Rank
1. Curriculum articulation	H.S. Coll.	35 31	73 75	1 1	12 10	23 25	9 9	50 41	96 100	1 1
2. Proficiency assessment	H.S. Coll.	13 13	25 32	7 8	22 19	42 46	5 2	35 32	67 78	9 6
3. College admissions process	H.S. Coll.	34 15	65 37	3.5 7	15 16	29 39	7.5 4.5	49 31	94 75	3 8
4. Test programs for college scholarships and admissions	H.S. Coll.	34 17	65 42	3.5 5	15 12	29 29	7.5 8	49 29	94 71	3 9
5. Transition from school to college	H.S. Coll.	21 19	40 47	6 4	24 16	46 39	2.5 4.5	45 35	86 86	6 4
6. Communication between schools and colleges	H.S. Coll.	24 27	47 66	5 2	22 10	43 24	4 10	46 37	90 90	5 2
7. Motivation of students for college	H.S. Coll.	19 18	36 45	6 5	24 17	46 42	2.5 3	43 35	82 87	7 3
8. High School multiple-tracks and differentiated diplomas	H.S. Coll.	9 12	16 30	9.5 9	28 19	53 47	1 1	37 31	69 77	8 7
9. Articulation between elementary and secondary education	H.S. Coll.	9 6	16 15	9.5 10	20 14	38 35	6 6.5	29 20	54 49	10 10
10. "Advanced placement and credit" in college	H.S. Coll.	37 20	71 50	2 3	11 14	20 35	10 6.5	48 34	94 85	3 5

IMPORTANCE OF TEN AREAS FOR NCA
ACTION REGARDING CLOSER HIGH
SCHOOL-COLLEGE ARTICULATION

LAST SPRING, Clyde Vroman, secretary of the Commission on Research and Service, asked 63 high schools and 54 colleges to judge the importance of ten areas for NCA action regarding closer high school-college articulation. He made this request for the guidance of the Committee on High School-College Articulation, of which he is chairman. Fifty-two high schools and 41 colleges replied. He had asked the institutions to estimate the importance of the ten areas shown in the accompanying table, by judging the extent to which "the NCA should take leadership and give assistance to find desirable practices and to reduce current problems" in regard to them. A five-point scale was used: *Very*

Much, Somewhat, Little, None, No Opinion.

The accompanying table was derived from Mr. Vroman's data. It uses only *Very Much* and *Somewhat*. Replies on the other levels were too few to be meaningful.

Adequate discussion of the situation which these judgments reveal will not be attempted here. In only two areas: "1. Curriculum articulation" and "9. Articulation between elementary and secondary education," do the high schools and colleges agree: the former area ranks first and the latter, last. The responding institutions rather widely diverge in regard to the rest. The rank-difference coefficient of correlation for the whole array is .37.

Could closer agreement be reached in a face-to-face symposium of deans and high school principals?

As the Soviet Twig Is Bent*

IT GOES WITHOUT SAYING that when I received the invitation to come to Chicago to discuss this subject, I emphasized to your distinguished secretary that I am a layman, not a professional educator. He suggested that the Executive Committee wanted, in this instance, a non-professional point of view. I have concluded that there may be for both of us some wisdom in this decision. Labelling myself a layman makes it possible for me to utter the most irresponsible and outrageous statements about education, both Soviet and American; all I need to do is remind my listeners that this is a non-professional point of view; therefore, obviously, the scholarly research in your field is of no concern to me. From your point of view, on the other hand, it might be equally convenient to be able to shrug off my comments if by any wild chance they appear to come perilously close to an unpalatable truth. What can one expect from a speaker who refers to himself as a layman in a field in which *everyone* is, after all, an expert?

Further, George Kennan has said that there are no experts on the Soviet Union; there are only varying degrees of ignorance. I shall leave the judgment of my position on the continuum of ignorance entirely to you, emphasizing only that so far as I know, Mr. Kennan is right. (Each of us carries his own built-in yardstick by which to measure the world.)

When I am asked to spell out the major differences between our educational sys-

tem and that of the Russians, I am likely to think in detail of those gross differences which are most easily seen and understood. But more basic differences stem from fundamental aspects of the societies which the educational systems are designed to serve. Objectives *are* different, but let us give the Russians their due—they know precisely what their objectives are. Our own uncertainty concerning certain educational issues is incomprehensible to them.

Never, in the Soviet Union, did I find anyone willing to subscribe to any substantial part of what President Pusey said recently about the job of the American university: "... to educate free, independent, and vigorous minds, capable of analyzing events, of exercising judgment, of distinguishing facts from propaganda, and truth from half-truth and lies." In this respect the Soviet system is like the mule with no pride of ancestry or hope of progeny.

For my part, I would, with William James, suggest that those minds most difficult to discipline (in the sense of being reduced to the conventional) are among our proudest products; that the college or student atmosphere in which the essentially lonely thinker will feel himself least lonely and most richly nourished, is the most desirable academic environment a democracy can provide. But I found no Russian willing to agree, publicly at least, with that point of view.

Scholarship in either society can hardly be productive in this sense without criticism; criticism which is often brother to skepticism. This, too, differentiates the systems. I speak here of informed skepticism, of course; the recognition that all change is not progress and all movement is not forward; the insistence upon the presentation of evidence, the participation

* Delivered at the Second General Session of the Association, April 24, 1959, in Chicago. Mr. Ziebarth is a distinguished world traveler and news analyst, consultant to the Columbia Broadcasting Company, and author. He toured the Soviet Union in the fall of 1958. At the University of Minnesota he is professor and head of the Department of Speech and Theater Arts and dean of the summer session.—EDITOR.

in the search for truth no matter where it may lead, no matter how it may appear to affect our most cherished beliefs. No Soviet educator spoke in those terms! But the charge of rigidity so often made must be qualified. There is little apparent resistance to change simply because it is change—the Russians recognize with the Greeks that one cannot step into the same river twice—or indeed into the *same* river once! The framework may be rigid, but within it change is continuous.

It goes without saying that in the Soviet Union the major objective of education at all levels is to serve the state. Nowhere did I find an educational administrator, or even a teacher, willing to discuss with me the importance of the development of the individual, of his capacities and interests *as* an individual. Always my questions were answered in terms of the needs of the state. "The state must have so many physicists," and the system is designed to provide them. "We need 44,000 teachers of English to fulfill our quota, and we have them. We must have a minimum base of literacy and training for all Soviet citizens in order that the state shall function properly and smoothly, and that, too, we are providing." Educational productivity is rigidly conceived at this level; productivity is an obsession with the Soviet Union, of course, in almost all fields—the engineer who said that they had no gum in the Soviet Union because chewing without swallowing is unproductive, was more than half serious.

There is some freedom of choice, but it is freedom of choice for the state, not for the individual, and it is handled in a way which is thoroughly consistent with a rigid, authoritarian, planned society. There is no emphasis upon the right of the individual to develop his own capacities to the limits of his ability on the one hand, or his choice, on the other. The concern is for the strengthening and perpetuation of the regime, not for the strengthening of the individual. If Dr. Whitney Griswold's "spark of greatness" falls anywhere on the 8½ million square miles of

real estate, it will not be a free individual who picks it up and fans it into a flame of progress—it will be confined by the walls of a political forge in which it may burn brightly, but not freely.

The need for educational balance to which we pay tribute also has quite a different meaning in the Soviet Union. The most capricious critics of our own educational system, those who believe that the Sputniks symbolize a broad, genuine educational superiority and who press for the adoption of a vaguely defined Soviet system of educational values, even among these there is recognition of the need for *balance*. The need for the scientist, for example, to have the broadest vision and understanding of his society—the vision which makes him a capable critic of its structure. Such values are rarely mentioned in the Soviet Union if my limited experience may be used as an index.

Adlai Stevenson, after his visit to the Soviet Union, said that to him the great tragedy was that the Russians knew so little about the United States, its government and its world-wide objectives. My own feeling, after countless interviews, was that an even greater tragedy is that the Russian knows so little about *his own* government and its objectives, and feels so far removed from it that its policies seem to him quite literally none of his business. That feeling, contrasted with our own goal of free and responsible participation in decision-making, is in part a reflection of the educational system, too.

Eternal vigilance is not the only price of liberty—a part of the price is the development of an understanding of what it is we are being vigilant about. Democratic education does not imply mediocre education; it does mean full and deep respect for the dignity and freedom of the individual, including the freedom to develop his talents to the fullest possible extent.

Perhaps the most common of all criticisms of Soviet teaching is that of formalism—emphasis upon the form of lecture presentation which fails to provide an opportunity for independent, individual

application of materials learned. This does not apply only to the social sciences, but to the study of mathematics, chemistry and physics. No one would contend that in the United States we are free from such formalism—it is very much with us—but wherever I went in the Soviet Union the most able academic people were decrying memorization without assimilation.

Let me turn now more directly to what I saw inside and outside the schools and universities of the Soviet Union, from Siberia to Moscow, from Leningrad to the Black Sea. It would be an insensitive person indeed who would not be impressed by the almost incredible hunger for education and knowledge, by the long lines of eager citizens of all ages before bookstores, and by the apparently efficient organization of those bookstores, in terms at least of the interests of the authoritarian state. It is intriguing to consider many of the peripheral aspects of the broad educational system which extends from the pre-school nursery organization and the part-time schools through the Academy of Sciences.

There are so many homely examples: in the subway in New York I see passengers with faces buried in a newspaper; in the Tube in London, I see them staring unseeingly out a window which shows nothing but a dirty wall as the train whizzes by; in the Paris Metro, one sees them holding hands, or smiling at the girl across the way; but in Moscow and Leningrad, the subway rider is deeply and genuinely engrossed in a book, frequently a technical book, and this is true of the elevator operator in Rostov, the pedestrian on the street in Sochi, the worker walking to the Kharkov tractor plant, or the young lieutenant at a military outpost in Irkutsk, out on the Mongolian frontier.

The mass media, too, especially radio and television, are used for quasi-educational purposes—indoctrination, political and economic. But there is some escape function, too: I suspect that both the Russian and the American who say “I have half a mind to watch wrestling on TV tonight” are adequately equipped for the task.

In schools one notes immediately that class size is held to a manageable maximum, probably better controlled in this respect than are our own classes.

It is challenging to know that teachers and research workers are generously assisted by those with less adequate training. Thus, on academic levels at which we believe the teacher should do his own technical work, the Russian system provides laboratory and technical assistants, as well as doctors and nurses.

Almost all American observers, I think, have been impressed with the extent to which the Russian student appears willing to tackle his academic tasks. There are, of course, exceptions, and all of us who spent any time in the Soviet Union have seen them, but *they are exceptions*. The Soviet parent looks on education as the one means of helping the child move from peasantry, or life as an unskilled worker, to something considerably better. The state and the party appear to view the schools as the major instrument (along with the party) for the development of national progress and direct competition in the world struggle for power.

On the curricular side, specifically, a distinguished American scientist said to me the other day that he had been impressed in a brief visit to the Soviet Union by the work in mathematics, physics, and chemistry, as we all have been, but also by the fact that there were no substantial number of what he called “vocational frills” attached to the Soviet educational system. Almost every visitor to the Soviet Union is impressed by the work in the physical sciences, but my friend is quite wrong about what he chooses to call “frills,” if he means what I think he means by that term. And there will be more of them, not fewer. There *is* training in agriculture, in shop work, in home-making, sewing, cooking, in music and dancing. Of course, in the land of Ulanova, dancing is almost always ballet, and frequently is emphasized in the pioneer palaces rather than in the school curriculum itself.

Let me briefly in this context mention the place of the technicum, a kind of

specialized secondary school usually running four years and emphasizing vocational training, but at a sub-professional level. The graduate of a seven-year school may be accepted on a competitive basis. If he is a graduate of the ten-year school, and cannot qualify for a university, he may be able to take a course to be completed in about two years. It's especially interesting, from our point of view, to note that the majority of these technicums exist not as separate institutions, but rather as a part of a large industry, a ministry, or possibly even a large collective farm. The training, therefore, is quite clearly oriented toward the work of the ministry, the industry, or the occupational area which controls it.

There has been so much discussion of the technicum as a kind of institute of technology, that I should emphasize that the technicum graduate is closer to the graduate of one of our own technical high schools, or junior colleges, or vocational institutes, than he is, for example, to the professional engineer.

It is impressive to look at the rolls of the correspondence courses, the evening courses and the schools for workers so frequently attached to factories. It is especially impressive to note that the teacher on all levels in the Soviet Union has status; status of a kind which in our culture is likely to be accorded in the educational world only to the top-flight professor in the great university. While the teacher's salary in the Soviet Union is not as high comparatively as most Americans believe, it is adequate, and as he moves up the scale in rank and responsibility, that salary becomes better by Russian standards. (Incidentally, extra teaching beyond the normal load means extra pay.)

The controversial stipend system, whatever we may think of its basic motivation, does make higher education possible for virtually every student of top ability, and the stipends again are adequate, if not generous.

No one who examines the research laboratories of the Soviet Union can possibly be unimpressed, although I think the reports brought back by those who look

at research equipment at only the great State University in Moscow, or at the University of Leningrad, are likely to result in inaccurate inferences. I noticed that in my own areas of special interest at least (and as nearly as I could tell, this applied to physics, chemistry and the biological sciences as well), both equipment and manifest research competence diminished as I moved from Leningrad, Moscow and Kiev into Kharkov, Rostov out into Siberia and the provincial universities.

The American visitor is intrigued if not impressed by the extent to which there was, even before the Khrushchev directive, an emerging emphasis upon what Soviet administrators call "education for life." (But this is sometimes fanciful, too—I was intrigued to find courses in driver education, and when I questioned students in one school in Siberia about what use they might make of it, only one of more than twenty said that he had any hope of owning an automobile.)

But it is not difficult to find wasteful aspects of Soviet education: one for example is what I believe to be an over-emphasis upon training the slow learner. The popular American assumption that the Russian system is so ruthless that even on the elementary level the less able are permitted to fall by the wayside is completely erroneous; indeed, excessive energy is expended in working with the less talented. Lest I be misunderstood, let me hasten to say that at the upper levels, top talent is rewarded by further academic experience, and let me say further that I am dedicated to the principle of providing for the slow learner every possible educational advantage adapted to his needs, but that does not extend to pacing the system for him. The reason for such concern? The Communist Party line has traditionally held that no one is born to be a hewer of wood or a drawer of water. The principles of individual differences are regarded as reactionary. The blame for poor learning is placed directly upon the teacher, rather than upon the student.

Principles of evaluation and standards for passing have inevitably been affected

by these assumptions concerning individual differences. The curriculum of the ten-year school is a demanding one of course, but the rate of failure is very much lower than we have been led to believe. Teachers are reluctant to give low grades because it implies that they have been doing their jobs inadequately. (Incidentally, one of the most commonly heard criticisms of Soviet teaching is that it is designed to force the student to memorize, rather than to understand.)

Everyone in this audience, I am sure, is already familiar with the findings of a group of Soviet physicians that work requirements in the schools have been so stiff that danger to health has resulted; that poor posture, poor vision, and inadequate resistance to disease are the prices paid. One result: homework is forbidden on holidays and weekends.

And there are other wasteful aspects of the system which it might console us to examine: single student recitations, for example, taking the time of entire classes, schools operating in shifts, rigidity causing the loss of creative contributions.

Another depressing aspect of the educational system is the tremendously close link between the schools and the Communist Party: at the very earliest ages with the Young Octoberists, then through the elementary school with the Young Pioneers, and on the secondary and collegiate level with the Komsomol or Young Communist League. This is not a casual relationship, but one which involves virtually every student (although legally there is no requirement of membership) and which involves leaders who have as much or more prestige in the school system as the teachers themselves.

Now let me try very quickly to dig into some of the more fundamental aspects of the system and of the Khrushchev reform. I have heard since returning to the United States comments on all sides that the purpose of the plan is simply to provide a greater supply of labor, especially during a period when the labor force is still short, and women still make up a very substantial portion of it. However, if we examine

the target date for the completion of the reform and the objections of the factory managers, it is clear that the explanation is inadequate, although it has some validity. A basic objective of the program is, of course, to avoid what Khrushchev so often has called the academic contempt for hard, honest work, and also to provide a genuine "link to life" by which is meant, "link to occupation." There is plenty of evidence that factory directors and chief engineers are not entirely happy about trying to absorb into the labor force these young people who will in many cases be leaving it again relatively quickly. If the plan were carried out as it is outlined on paper, it would in effect mean a lowering of the minimum age under the Soviet child labor laws. Several members of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences have had the temerity to argue that children should not be forced to work during the day and study at night!

There is no question that the present system of Soviet education is inadequate for the purposes of the nation it is presumed to be serving. An essentially unselected population mass has been given an education which is only a slight variation on the theme originally developed to serve the objectives of an intellectual elite. The major outgrowth of the Khrushchev revision will, of course, be the imposition of a highly technical and vocationally-oriented education for all adapted to the political, military, and economic requirements of the country. But it will also break down what Khrushchev has called the development of an educated class not suited to life as it must be lived in the Soviet Union. It may also break down some of the growing intellectual independence of that group.

The idea of the school's being a link to life and labor is not new with Khrushchev. It has often been said that Soviet planners are prisoners of their proletarian philosophy, and it is true that Lenin himself warned that youth must not isolate itself in the schools, that "only in labor, together with workers and peasants can one become a real Communist!" We may an-

ticipate seeing and hearing that kind of pronouncement with increasing frequency over the next few years.

(Incidentally, Khrushchev, himself, said that the present seven compulsory grades are completed by only about 80 percent of the children who enter the first grade, so the claims for universal seven-year education are something less than completely fulfilled.)

For the past few years, the very limited number of available openings in universities and other higher educational institutions has meant that the one-and-a-half million graduates of the ten-year school simply have had no place to go. The resulting scramble for entry has been very sharply criticized by Khrushchev, along with his biting attack on the waste of time and energy involved in training for academic openings which do not exist.

It's amusing to note that Khrushchev himself refers to unfair efforts of parents and others to gain position for young people not really qualified; and one Russian schoolman told me a story which he said had wide circulation in the Soviet Union: it dealt with an exceptionally awkward, ungainly, and slow-learning student who turns to a girl and says, "Congratulate me, I've just been admitted to the Institute for Physical Culture." She replies, "Do you have the necessary qualifications?" to which he answered, "I have the best qualifications there are. My uncle is the Dean of Admissions!"

I am not presumptuous enough to pretend to be able to make a sweeping evaluation of either the Soviet or American system of education. I will leave that to the high school debaters who are dealing with the question this year, and who are much more certain than I about the answer. But the Soviet schools, admired by some Americans, are under grave fire at home and are undergoing a sweeping change—the ten-year schools which have required all students, regardless of ability, to try to fit a rigid mold of academic preparation will give way to an equally rigid *vocational* orientation for all students. Not a direction in which most critics believe our schools should move.

As I watched Russians of all ages demonstrating their almost incredible hunger for knowledge, I thought of a man of seventy-two who is taking evening courses in the Extension Division of a great American university. When asked last week why he was studying at his age, he answered with Cato, "What other age have I?" Like this man, we have no other age; wherever we fit into the chronological scale, *this* must be our age, and it is through improvements in our free and flexible educational system that we may keep it so. Perhaps we may even implement the statement which, during the darkest days in London, often inspired us as we looked at it over the portals of the BBC—"Nations Shall Speak Peace Unto Nations!"

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Number Theory and Its Uses in the Curriculum*

IS NUMBER THEORY as useless as some mathematicians claim it to be? Any number theorist might answer with Gauss' famous statement, "Mathematics is the queen of the sciences and arithmetic is the queen of mathematics." And, if further questioned about practicality, he can point very proudly at the modern computing machine and exclaim, "Don't you know that number theory is the basis of this most modern tool?"

The number theory questioned here is the arithmetic of the ancient Greeks, an arithmetic that has very little in common with what is taught in modern elementary grades. The best theory of the ancients was revised in the seventeenth century by Philip Fermat into the format under which number theory is studied now. Because of this work Fermat is known as the father of modern number theory. Yet he has piqued many a mathematician for he is like the present day writers of mathematical texts and papers who leave a thing unexplained with the unwarranted assumption "it is obvious. . . ." Fermat failed to include proofs with notes he made in the margins of his books, and Euler, for one, spent much time proving the theorems Fermat stated. One theorem was not correct; another is still not proved.

* The theme of the forthcoming Sixty-fifth Annual Meeting of the Association, March 25-April 1, is "Improving School-College Articulation." Its essence lies, not in administration, but in the curriculum common to both institutions and methods of instruction which they mutually may employ. Sister Mary's article reveals how this situation can be achieved in one field—mathematics. The writer is chairman of the Department of Mathematics at St. Xavier.—EDITOR.

With the recent considerations of school mathematics, number theory is being injected occasionally at various positions in the curriculum.

One of the greatest defects of the traditional teaching of mathematics has been the lack of communication between the three levels of learning. This communication is a desired aspect in any proposed new program. Material at the elementary level should not only be teachable but should provide background for high school mathematics as well as for application to other subject matter. High school mathematics should be a link between elementary mathematics and collegiate mathematics so that progress can be made consistently.

The purpose of mathematics in the curriculum should be threefold: (1) Mathematics, because of its uniqueness in abstraction, contributes to the knowledge of the liberally educated person. It deals with the ideal and gives to the scholar a knowledge and power not obtained from any other subject. (2) Mathematics aids the development of logical reasoning, for it is one of the most perfect applications of logic. (3) Mathematics is a tool that can be applied to many branches of knowledge.

Mathematics that is taught should lend itself to this threefold purpose. Too frequently only its practicality is considered. Yet, mathematics is both beautiful and practical. Beauty is present here as strongly as it is in any of the fine arts. The delight that is experienced by the study of well-developed theorems or well-presented systems of mathematics is a spiritual

beauty, experienced by the mind. A student is made conscious of the truth by recognition of the inability to be mathematically dishonest. The abstract truth experienced by the mind produces a pure delight similar to the pleasant sensation that music gives to the ear and color gives to the eye.

It is the logical procedure, together with imagination, that has made mathematics unique and exact. Because of the property of exactness, the student of mathematics experiences the delight of certainty. A student knows that he knows. Such attainment of definite knowledge is the greatest mental satisfaction that any scholar can have. This attainment produces a confidence and assurance that lead to further development and expansion of one's reasoning ability.

Consider some of the number theoretic concepts. Number theory can aid in producing a curriculum that will provide this communication between levels as well as between the traditional and more modern mathematics that should be included in a school curriculum.

CONCEPT OF FACTOR

The treatment of factor which unites the operations of multiplication and division and develops the concept of inverse operations can be done at the third and fourth grade levels. Addition and subtraction are taught in a united fashion in the first two grades as inverse operations for about the past seven years. Within the past three years, the concept of factor has been introduced into some elementary texts. Unfortunately, according to reports by some supervisors, many teachers do not themselves know this concept. Succumbing to the temptation presented by any unknown material, they treat it as a new mechanical device, thus defeating the purpose of its inclusion.

Yet those teachers who are using it find it very reasonable and meaningful to their students. Factor should be presented with the introduction of multiplication and followed immediately by the concept of divisor in the operation of division.

For example,

$$\begin{array}{ll} 3 \times 5 = 15 & 3 \text{ and } 5 \text{ are factors of } 15 \\ 15 \div 3 = 5 & \text{or } \frac{15}{5} = 3 \\ 15 \div 5 = 3 & \frac{15}{3} = 5 \end{array}$$

3 and 5 are divisors of 15 since they are factors of 15. Teaching these concepts in this unified manner provides meaning and saves time, instead of treating multiplication and division at two separate levels. The concept of factor plays further roles in finding the l.c.d. of fractions, and working with one of the basic formulas in percentage:

$$\text{base} \times \text{rate} = \text{percentage}$$

Whether in this form, or one of its applied forms, such as $\text{principal} \times \text{rate} = \text{interest}$, a student, knowing factors, recognizes that base and rate are factors while percentage is the product. Only a bit more explanation is needed to teach him that the other two forms of the formula are found by dividing.

- 1) $\text{base} \times \text{rate} = \text{percentage}$
- 2) $\frac{\text{percentage}}{\text{base}} = \text{rate}$
- 3) $\frac{\text{percentage}}{\text{rate}} = \text{base}$

PRIME AND COMPOSITE NUMBERS

Classification of natural numbers by the number of their divisors never fails to intrigue students, whether young or adult.

One, having only one divisor, is set off by itself. This provides an opportunity to stress its importance as the unit element of multiplication and, through this knowledge, the concept of inverse or reciprocal.

Primes, being those natural numbers with two divisors, have been the object of man's study through the centuries. The idea that there exists an infinite number of them—and that any possible combination of them is a composite number—sets

any one to wonder. It is prime factorization of composite numbers that is used in finding the l.c.d. for fractions or what is known as the l.c.m. of two numbers as well as in reducing equivalent fractions. These concepts can be carried from the treatment of natural numbers to the treatment of terms and expressions in elementary algebra.

For example, find the l.c.d. of these fractions and add,

$$\frac{3}{35} + \frac{4}{15} \qquad 35 = 5 \times 7 \qquad 15 = 3 \times 5$$

The least common denominator or the least common multiple is the product of the factors, 3, 5, 7. Here the concept of 1 plays an important part. To add fractions, these fractions are changed to equivalent fractions, those fractions having the same value by different forms. Two equivalent fractions can be made equal in form by multiplying or dividing both numerator and denominator by 1 in a convenient form. In this example $3/35$ must be made equivalent to a fraction that needs 3 in the denominator as well since the l.c.d. = $3 \times 5 \times 7$. If 3 is to be in the denominator then it must be included in the numerator, so as to change its form but not its value since $3/3 = 1$.

$$\frac{3}{35} = \frac{3}{3} \times \frac{3}{5 \times 7} = \frac{9}{105}$$

Similarly, $4/15$ must be multiplied by 1 in the form of $7/7$.

$$\frac{4}{15} = \frac{4}{3 \times 5} \times \frac{7}{7} = \frac{28}{105}$$

It is prime, together with factor, that is of great importance in the understanding of binomial and other polynomial factors in elementary algebra, and is foundational to other topics that involve polynomials and equations. These two topics, prime and factor, eliminate the problem of incorrect cancelling in numerator and denominator through dividing by one.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{x+3}{x^2-4} + \frac{x-1}{x+2} \\ &= \frac{(x+3)}{(x+2)(x-2)} + \frac{(x-1)(x-2)}{(x+2)(x-2)} \\ &= \frac{(x+3) + (x-1)(x-2)}{(x+2)(x-2)} \\ &= \frac{(x+3) + (x^2 - 3x + 2)}{(x+2)(x-2)} \\ &= \frac{x^2 - 2x + 5}{x^2 - 4} \end{aligned}$$

The primitive roots of unity again work with the concept of prime numbers.

THE DIVISION ALGORITHM

There are numbers that are not factors and that divide numbers. The algorithm provides a method of writing this operation: $a = bq + r$.

- a = Number to be divided (dividend)
- b = Divisor
- c = Quotient
- r = Remainder

This simple concept easily permits application.

a) It provides a method of writing answers in long division. At present there are no set ways for doing this and most of the forms are artificial. For example $25R4$. Not only does the division algorithm provide a method of writing the answer but it shows a relationship of size and it emphasizes the inverse operations. The process of dividing includes division and subtraction, while the answer indicated multiplication and addition.

b) The division algorithm is the basis for Euclid's Algorithm. Euclid's Algorithm is a method of finding the g.c.d. of two integers. It is a series of algorithms with each succeeding one using the previous divisor as dividend and remainder as divisor.

$$a = bq_1 + r_1$$

$$b = r_1q_2 + r_2$$

$$r = r_2q_3 + r_3$$

$$\cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot$$

$$r_{n-3} = r_{n-2}q_{n-1} + r_{n-1}$$

$$r_{n-2} = r_{n-1}q_n + r_n \quad (r = 0)$$

The last non-zero remainder is the g.c.d. of a and b . By reversing the steps, this last non-zero remainder is shown to be the largest common factor of a and b .

$$62 \div 8 \quad 62 = (8)(7) + 6 \quad r_1 = 6$$

$$a = 62 \quad 8 = (6)(1) + 2 \quad r_2 = 2$$

$$b = 8 \quad 6 = (2)(3) + 0 \quad r_3 = 0$$

$$r_2 = 2 = \text{g.c.d. of } 62 \text{ and } 8.$$

Euclid's Algorithm has only the one practical value of finding the g.c.d. of two numbers. Yet it offers a diversion. It has something of drill on fundamental operations.

Both the division and Euclid's Algorithms can be carried into the division and relationship of polynomials in algebra and theory of equations.

At the elementary level the division algorithm can be a basis for modal arithmetics. Modal arithmetic, using the operation of addition or the operation of multiplication, can be a drill device, a diversion for those days when the regular scheduled material fails to satisfy, and also as a learning process for advanced mathematics. For example, consider the modal arithmetics using the modulus as 7. Every integer when divided by seven, the modulus, has a remainder less than 7; that is, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6. This can be shown in the form of division algorithm.

$$0 = 7(0) + 0 \quad 142 = (7)(20) + 2$$

$$1 = 7(0) + 1 \quad 143 = (7)(20) + 3$$

$$2 = 7(0) + 2 \quad \text{etc.}$$

It is the set of remainders that are used in modal arithmetics. With this set, a table can be formed.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	(mod 7)
0								
1								
2								
3								
4								
5								
6								

Add to the numbers on the top of the table those numbers on the left as $4 + 6 \equiv 3$. After the table is completed it can be seen that each number appears once and only once in each row and column.

+	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	(mod 7)
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	0	
2	2	3	4	5	6	0	1	
3	3	4	5	6	0	1	2	
4	4	5	6	0	1	2	3	
5	5	6	0	1	2	3	4	
6	6	0	1	2	3	4	5	

The concept of unit of operation can be shown here with the use of 0; i.e., the unit of addition at a very early level. Similarly, the unit of multiplication, one, can be stressed in the use of modal arithmetics tables for multiplication. Since 0 annihilates all numbers under multiplication, it is usually not included in tables, though it can be used to emphasize its annihilating power. (See table on next page.)

Also, the concept of inverse can be stressed further. For example, under such a multiplication the inverse of 4 is 2, of 3 is 5, and 6 is its own inverse.

At the secondary and the college level, then, modal arithmetic may be seen to be

x	1	2	3	4	5	6	$(\text{mod } 7)$
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	
2	2	4	6	1	3	5	
3	3	6	2	5	1	4	
4	4	1	5	2	6	3	
5	5	3	1	6	4	2	
6	6	5	4	3	2	1	

one of the aspects of old number theory and the concepts of congruence.

CONGRUENCE

If modal arithmetics has already been learned, then a more exact definition of congruence can be derived from the division algorithm form, formally used.

If $a \equiv b (\text{mod } m)$, it implies

$$\frac{(a-b)}{m}$$

Or, in other words, a and b have the same remainder $(\text{mod } m)$

$$\begin{aligned} 17 &= (7)(2) + 3 \\ 24 &= (7)(3) + 3 \end{aligned}$$

therefore

$$24 \equiv 17 (\text{mod } 7)$$

or

$$\frac{24-17}{7} = \frac{7}{7} = 1$$

Congruence can be united to the study of set theory in various ways. It forms a communication between traditional and modern mathematics.

Set theory should be included in the teaching of mathematics as early as possible. To show that it is basic to all mathematics it must infiltrate mathematics throughout. Not much more than terminology can be introduced at the very early level. It would be well if the elementary

teacher could use the idea of set to classify in subjects such as English, geography, and spelling. In this way concrete sets are provided without artificiality. Sets of numbers with ordinary fundamental operations can also be included. Modal arithmetics certainly provide material for sets. It can be shown easily that those numbers 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, (mod 5) are not only sets in themselves but also really are representatives of sets of numbers having the properties of remainders equal to 0, 1, 2, 3, 4. The idea of infinity can be further developed. Also, subsets for each of the sets $5k+0$, $5k+1$, etc., are subsets of the set of integers.

The sets, $5k+0$, $5k+1$, $7k+2$, $7k+6$, etc., are also sets or classes with respect to congruence.

Another drill device can be derived from the concept of congruence, from exponents, and from Fermat's Little Theorem. It is the process of raising a number to some power, and reducing it as the operations are being performed.

For example,

$$3^{37} \equiv ? (\text{mod } 5)$$

This offers a wonderful drill device for review in multiplication.

$$\begin{aligned} 3 &\equiv 3 (\text{mod } 5) & 3^6 &\equiv 4 (\text{mod } 5) \\ 3^2 &\equiv 4 (\text{mod } 5) & 3^8 &\equiv 1 (\text{mod } 5) \\ 3^3 &\equiv 2 (\text{mod } 5) & 3^{32} &\equiv 1 (\text{mod } 5) \\ 3^6 &\equiv 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 (\text{mod } 5) \\ 3^8 &\equiv 3^2 \cdot 3^6 \equiv 4 \cdot 4 \equiv 1 (\text{mod } 5) \\ 3^{32} &\equiv (3^8)^4 \equiv 1^4 \equiv 1 (\text{mod } 5) \\ 3^{37} &\equiv 3^{32} \cdot 3^2 \cdot 3^3 \equiv 1 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \equiv 8 \equiv 3 (\text{mod } 4) \end{aligned}$$

The busy teacher who would like to use this concept and yet does not have too much time to make up exercises will find Fermats' Little Theorem of great use.

$$a^{p-1} \equiv (\text{mod } p)$$

Let $p=47$ and $a^{46} \equiv 1 (\text{mod } 47)$ for any a . With slight variation this is a great time-saver for the teacher.

SET THEORY OPERATIONS

If the g.c.d. of two or more numbers is known, this concept using the common factors may be used as an example of the operation of intersection. For example, find g.c.d. of 24 and 38.

$$24 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3$$

$$38 = 2 \times 19$$

The intersection of factors of 24 and 38 = g.c.d.

$$(2, 2, 2, 3) \cap (2, 19) = 2 \text{ g.c.d. of } 24 \text{ and } 38$$

Similarly, the l.c.d., or l.c.m., of two or more numbers may be shown as an example of unions in which the set consists of factors of the number. For example, find the l.c.m. of 24 and 38.

$$24 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3$$

$$38 = 2 \times 19$$

$$(2, 2, 2, 3) \cup (2, 19) = (2, 2, 2, 3, 19)$$

The l.c.m. is the product of the elements in the union of the factors of l.c.m. equal to 456.

FINITE GROUPS, RINGS, FIELDS

Through modal arithmetics, the concepts of finite groups, rings, and fields can

be developed in secondary school. Reference to the table formed (mod 7) for either addition or multiplication reveals that this arithmetic satisfies the condition for a group. A group is a set of elements, under an operation that satisfies the following conditions:

- 1) Elements under operation satisfy the associative law.
- 2) There exists closure; that is, only the elements present are results of their operation.
- 3) There exists a unit operation (0 and 1).
- 4) There exists an inverse for each element.

A field is a set of elements that forms a group under both operations and satisfies the distributive law. Since the arithmetic (mod 7) under addition and multiplication are groups, then elements (mod 7) form a field. This is found to be true for any prime modulus.

A mathematician trying some of these will find there are further applications of number theory to traditional mathematics of elementary grades and of high school as well as relations between traditional and more modern mathematics.

From these examples, is not number theory useful?

The Task of Accrediting in Higher Education Today*

IT IS IMPORTANT, we all agree, that institutions of higher education make their goals explicit—that they clearly set forth the purposes they hope to achieve. But this job, once done, is not done for all time. It is true that at a high level of generality the purposes of an institution may remain the same over a long period of time, but the more specific goals can be expected to shift with changes in the total social context within which the institution operates. In the same fashion, the methods employed in reaching goals are modified as needs change and as better ways of carrying on the operation are discovered. It is of great importance that an institution be in close communication with its constituents so that those who are interested in the institution may modify their image of it as changes in the institution occur. Clearly, no institution can render service of maximal effectiveness if the expectations of those it serves are significantly at variance with what the institution is prepared to provide.

The Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association, like the institutions it serves, faces this problem of preserving congruence between the realities of its work and the perceptions of its constituents and of others who view its operations. That the perceptions of an organization like ours be accurate becomes the more important as the impact of its activities comes to be more widely felt. For, if the purposes and methods of the organization are not understood, the social forces through which changes in it are brought about may, be-

cause they are misdirected as a result of a false image, have an adverse rather than a beneficial effect. It is not the fortunes of the organization that are of concern here; it is that the society the organization serves suffers as a result of the distorted image.

Accrediting is today a potent force in higher education. An agency carrying on accrediting activities has a responsibility to construct an accurate public image of the agency, and to introduce the necessary modifications in this image as it modifies its objectives and its means for working toward their attainment. In recent years the Commission on Colleges and Universities has modified its role considerably. It is with the hope of bringing the picture of the work of the Commission today more sharply into focus that this article has been written.

The basic purpose of the Commission is simply stated: It is to contribute to the improvement of higher education in the nineteen-state area served by the Association. Underlying our efforts to advance the cause of higher education are two important principles. First, we recognize the validity, indeed the desirability, of maintaining the individuality of institutions of higher education. We accept the idea that institutions do and should differ from one another in purposes as well as in educational methods. The late Dean Haggerty expressed this ideal well. He said, some twenty-five years ago, "No institution has, or ever will have, sufficient resources to serve all the purpose of higher education. Nor does America require a multiplication of higher institutions all attempting the same thing. What it does need is a total pattern of institutions in

* The view of the Commission on Colleges and Universities. Mr. Burns is secretary of the Commission and professor at the University of Chicago.

which each, by serving its limited functions well, would create a system of higher education serving all students according to their individual needs—a system in which society will find all the educational services that are useful to it.”

Thus the Commission has abandoned—and this some time ago—its reliance on prescribed standards to which all institutions must conform as a condition of accreditation. Rather, it attempts to evaluate an institution in terms of that institution's purposes, and encourages institutional experimentation looking toward better ways of carrying on the educational process. Indeed, we see as one of our major functions today that of stimulating institutions to seek constantly for better ways of solving their educational problems. This is a far cry from the earlier day in which the attempt was made to set a standard pattern for colleges to follow.

The second major principle basic to the Commission's efforts to strengthen higher education is taken from modern learning theory. One aspect of this theory involves recognition of the importance of having the learner actively involved in the learning experience. This has relevance in accrediting in that we now view accreditation as a learning experience rather than merely a device for separating the unacceptable from the acceptable institutions. Involving the learner in the learning experience means, in the context of accrediting, active participation by the institution's faculty and staff in the accrediting process; thus the importance of the self-study in the accrediting process.

Another change related to modern concepts of learning is that we view the institution, not as the blank slate of the earlier psychology upon which the accrediting agency wrote its standards, but rather as a Gestalt—a living organism of interrelated parts reacting with its environment and growing continually in educational effectiveness. It is the task of the accrediting agency, as we view it, to facilitate institutional growth. It is the task of the accrediting agency to make its resources available to facilitate growth,

not merely up to the point where an institution is accreditable, but beyond that point. Even the best institutions have a potential for further growth. Thus the Commission becomes, we hope, a motivator and expediter rather than a standardizer. Its concern is with educational advance rather than status determination, and its objectives are couched in terms of growth rather than minimum status.

In the foregoing paragraphs we have set forth in brief form the rationale of the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association out of which the Commission's present-day activities grow and upon which its procedures are based. These activities represent a marked departure from the ways of the past. The reappraisal which gave rise to the changes continues, and it is certain that other changes will be made as a result of our continuing critical self-appraisal of our work.

Notable among the changes that have taken place are changes in the procedures for appraising institutions for purposes of accreditation. Formerly, an institution presented itself for evaluation. An examination was made by representatives of the Commission, and on the basis of a series of mathematically-derived scores a decision was made as to whether, on balance, the institution had attained a level of excellence which justified its accreditation. The role of the institution under examination was a completely passive one.

Today, the institution itself is actively involved in the accrediting process. In the first place, long before it comes up for formal evaluation, an institution seeking accreditation embarks on an intensive and extensive self-study. It is assisted in this activity by the staff of the Secretary's office. If it wishes, the institution can also arrange for consultant assistance through the Commission's College Field Service Council. The assistance rendered is not in the form of specific directions on how to proceed, nor are answers to the institution's problems provided. The activity is rather a stimulative one in which the

institution is assisted in identifying its own problems and in looking for solutions appropriate to its particular circumstances. This is, of course, consistent with the idea of preserving and encouraging institutional individuality and of utilizing the accrediting operation as a learning experience which involves the active participation of the learner.

Formerly, important use was made of normative data as standards for evaluating institutions. Today, we recognize that one must be extremely cautious in doing this. Let us take, for example, the ratio of faculty members to students. In the first place, it cannot be assumed that the typical faculty-student ratio is in any sense an ideal. The reason is that the norm is very significantly influenced by the very large number of very small colleges which would have a higher ratio if they were successful in their efforts to enlarge the student body. In the second place, even if someone had sufficient wisdom to suggest what would *in general* be a desirable ratio, there is no reason to believe that this ratio would be an appropriate measure when applied to any *particular* institution. Whether or not the faculty-student ratio in a particular institution is satisfactory can only be determined by considering it in relationship to other institutional characteristics, such as the extent to which the institution attempts to individualize the instructional program.

Similar objections can be raised to the use of other kinds of normative data as standards. Educational expenditures per student will vary according to the organization of the curriculum, the size of the student body, and the extent to which students are enrolled in relatively low-cost rather than advanced high-cost programs. Faculty salaries can be expected to vary with institutional prestige, conditions of faculty service, and the extent to which the idea of contributed services is present.

This is not to say that normative data are of no value in institutional evaluation or in educational planning. On the contrary, since evaluators and institutions engaged in educational planning find it

useful to have some guides of this kind, we annually gather, analyze, and publish data showing trends in such items. But one must constantly be alert to the danger that such guides may come to be thought of as standards to be applied without reference to other characteristics of the institution.

It is clear that, while the Commission would be in a wholly indefensible position were it to insist on conformity to standard practices, it has an obligation to the institutions it serves to make explicit its beliefs as to what, in general, constitutes good educational practice. This it does through statements of policy dealing with different aspects of higher education developed through a process not unlike that of the development of a body of common law. That is, the accumulated experience of the colleges and universities is drawn on to construct statements of policy on practices which appear to have worked well. As experience accumulates, appropriate modifications are made. Such statements are viewed as baselines or guidelines to be used in the consideration of individual institutions. The institutions themselves as they carry on their self-evaluative activities and the evaluators employed by the North Central Association must have the wisdom to determine the extent to which these statements which set forth good practice in general are applicable to a particular institution. This admittedly is a job of extraordinary difficulty, but the difficulties must be dealt with as best they can since, in our judgment, there is no other known method by which an organization such as ours can give leadership while preserving the atmosphere of freedom essential to the growth of institutions in a free society.

We have devised procedures and instituted programs to cope with these difficulties. First, as has already been indicated, we encourage institutions seeking accreditation, or seeking a change in their accredited status as a result of the introduction of programs of graduate study, to establish contact with the office of the Secretary far in advance of the actual

accrediting examination. In this fashion we are in a position to assist the institution in developing its plans. Of growing importance in this connection is the College Field Service Council through which we make consultants available to institutions for setting up and conducting the comprehensive self-study which is the first step in the accrediting process.

Only after a college has completed a satisfactory self-study is a team of examiners sent to visit the institution. In the possession of the examiners at the time they visit the institution is the self-study report and other pertinent information growing out of the contacts that the office of the Secretary through its staff and consultants has had with the institution. In the smaller institutions the examining team is usually composed of two persons who know well the kind of institution under consideration. The examiners usually spend two days on the campus. Their responsibility is to form a judgment on the success with which the institution has developed internally consistent arrangements for carrying on a defined educational task. The report of the examiners is sent to the office of the Secretary where it is duplicated and copies sent to the sub-committee of the Commission which will hear the case. This sub-committee also is provided with copies of the institution's self-study report.

At the Annual Meeting representatives of the institution and the chairman of the examining team meet with the sub-committee of the Commission to discuss the case. The representatives of the institution are provided with a copy of the examiners' report in advance of the meeting, and are given an opportunity to react to the report when they meet with the sub-committee. The members of the sub-committee have the self-study report and other documents provided by the institution in addition to the report of the examiners. This interview is an extension of the opportunity provided in the self-study report for the institution to make a case for itself.

Each of the sub-committees of the Com-

mission makes recommendations on the cases it has considered to the Executive Board of the Commission, which then considers all the cases with a view primarily to insuring consistency among the various sub-committees. The recommendations of the Executive Board, which, in almost all cases, follow the recommendations of the sub-committees are submitted to the Commission which then meets as a committee of the whole. Institutions have the right of appeal to the Executive Committee of the Association in the event they are dissatisfied with the decision reached by the Commission. That there have been no cases of appeal in recent years is at least partial evidence that the procedure is working well.

Obviously the competence of those who visit institutions, either as consultants or as evaluators, to make the kinds of judgments expected of them is basic to success in playing the rôle the Commission has set for itself. What the Commission needs is a core of persons who are knowledgeable in the field of higher education, perceptive and flexible in their approach to educational problems, possessed of a broad view of the social scene and the place of higher education in it, skilled in interviewing, and able to work effectively with institutional staffs in working toward the solution of the problems of higher education. These persons may be called *generalists* to distinguish them from the specialists in the subject matters of higher education. The attributes they possess are important not only to the Commission on Colleges and Universities, but to all of higher education, for they are the attributes of leadership.

Over the years the activities of the Commission have provided opportunities for generalist training on an apprenticeship basis under which young, inexperienced men work as examiners under the direction of experienced visitors. But this is not enough in a period when higher education is changing and expanding so rapidly, and three years ago the Commission embarked upon its first program for systematically providing opportunities for generalist or leadership training.

Under the Committee on Leadership Training and Studies, an experimental program supported by the Carnegie Corporation, was set up. The plan provided for a program of guided field experiences supplemented by conference discussions for young men who showed promise of becoming leaders in higher education. The first group of fifteen participants was selected in the summer of 1957 from over 100 nominations submitted by the 400 member colleges and universities of the Association. During the year the fifteen associates visited five institutions each in teams of three. In each case the team was accompanied by a person skilled in institutional evaluation and in working with college faculties and administrators. The attempt was made to vary the visits both as to type of institution and kind of experience.

The series of field experiences was followed by a four-day conference in August of 1958. This conference provided the opportunity for the participants to discuss basic educational problems identified in the course of their field experiences, to relate these experiences to the larger context of higher education, and to examine critically the various aspects of the program. In the fall of 1958 another group of fifteen associates was selected in the same manner as in the previous year. In the light of the experience of the first year of the Project, the program was modified to provide for a greater variety of field experiences. The field experiences for the first year had been largely institutional surveys. In the second year we made much more adequate provision for the participants to explore problems in some depth and to concentrate on the development of skills in interviewing. We are now in the third year of the program and have again introduced modifications based on our experience to date.

We believe this venture has been highly successful. All who have been connected with the Project have been favorably impressed with the high-level performance of the participants and the value of this particular approach to leadership train-

ing. An important by-product of the Project is the increased visibility gained by those who are selected for participation. The Project not only provides educational opportunities; it also informs the world of higher education that here are some promising young people to whom higher education can look for leadership.

The Commission has already benefitted greatly from its efforts to provide training in leadership. The graduates of the program are being used as consultants in our College Field Service Council, as examiners, and as coordinators in the Leadership Training Project itself. These "graduate" experiences are of great value in furthering the education of the participants. Thus we have come to view the Leadership Training Project not as a terminal program, but rather as a foundation for further growth of the participants, first, as generalists to be used as consultant-evaluators, and, looking a little more to the future, as leaders in higher education.

As we have said, there already is evidence that this is a fruitful means for increasing the effectiveness of the Commission on Colleges and Universities in carrying on its work. Only with the passage of more time will it be possible to assess the impact of the Project in terms of preparation for top-level leadership. The Project has, however, such promise that we hope to extend it for a few more years. We also have plans to explore other possible avenues for in-service leadership training.

There are other ways in which we are moving to enhance the effectiveness of our work. We have recently instituted what we hope will be a continuing series of conferences for examiners which will be of great value in the continuing appraisal of our accrediting procedures. Also, these conferences will, through the discussion of educational problems, provide an opportunity to promote agreement among the examiners on the things to be looked at in making an evaluation of an institution, the interpretation of the things observed, and the ordering of the

various elements of the institutional situation in terms of priority of importance.

The Membership Review Program represents another effort to strengthen our operation. This is a program under which all member colleges and universities of the North Central Association are visited periodically by members of the Commission. It provides an opportunity to identify weak institutions in the membership. These are, of course, relatively few in number. In the great majority of cases the value of the Review Program lies in the stimulation of the institutions visited, and in the broader vision and deeper insights gained by the Commissioners themselves.

We hope still further to enhance the value of this experience by instituting a series of conferences for Commissioners in which they will discuss their field experiences and the problems encountered.

This is the picture, painted in broad strokes, of the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association today. If we continue to be sensitive to our shortcomings and alert to opportunities for improvement, there is every reason to believe that this organization will continue to gain in effectiveness in discharging its responsibilities for the improvement of higher education in the territory it serves.

EDITOR'S NOTE

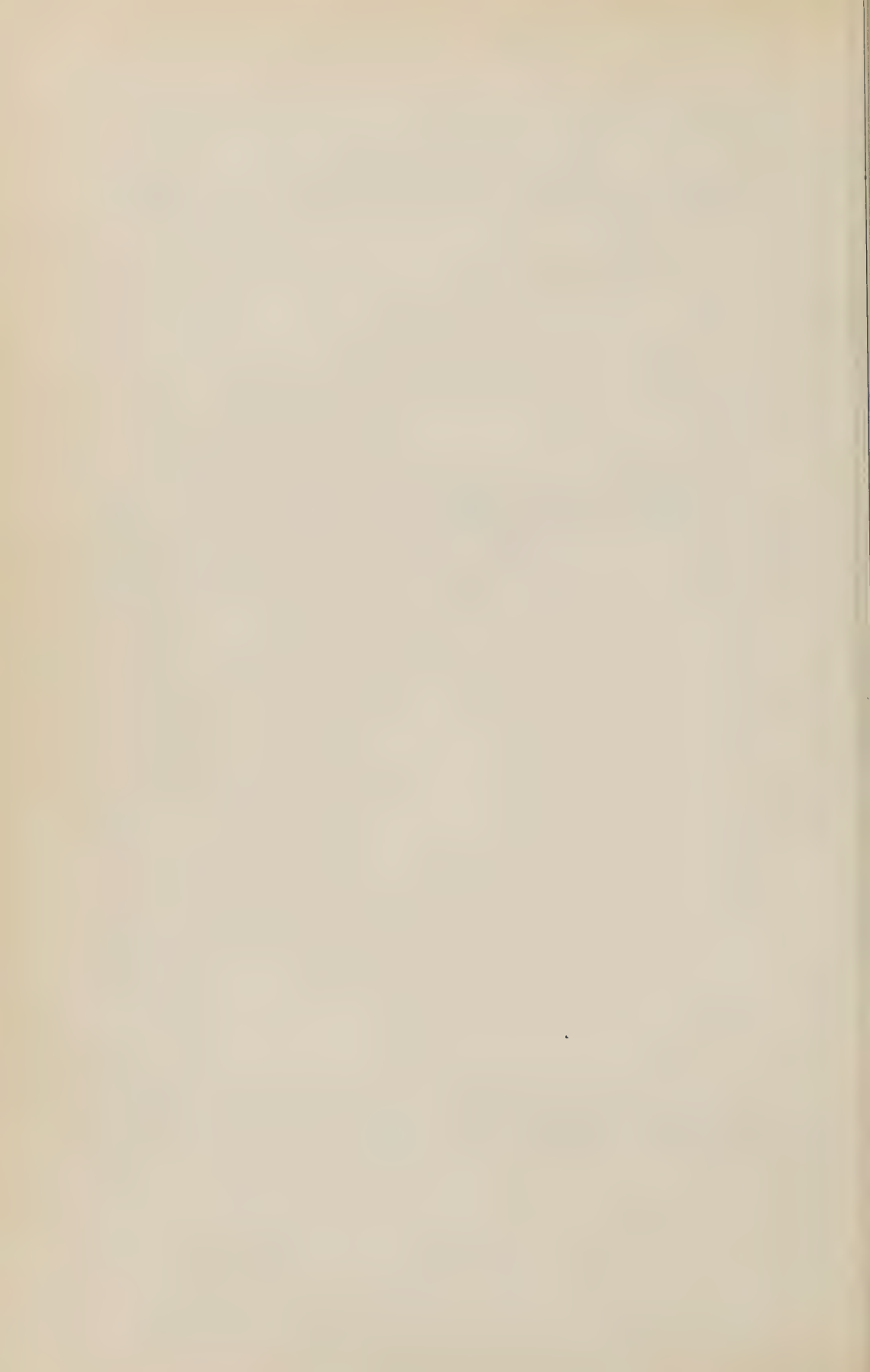
North Central Association Foreign Relations Project—Evaluation Program, which immediately follows, is printed in bulletin form for later distribution in two parts. Part I is a general summary; Part II, a final statistical analysis from September 1, 1955 to August 31, 1959, covering the life of the Project. Part I and Part II will be bound as separate reports.

Evaluation Program of the
North Central Association Foreign Relations Project

PART I: A GENERAL SUMMARY OF THE PROJECT

SEPTEMBER 1, 1955–AUGUST 31, 1959

Prepared Under the Direction of the National Advisory Committee on Evaluation for the
North Central Association Foreign Relations Project.



THERE IS A CRITICAL NEED for a more enlightened citizenry in the field of foreign affairs. The nation's welfare depends upon the continuous development of a sound foreign policy. The execution of a sound foreign policy, in turn, depends upon the backing of an informed public. Unfortunately, most Americans have too little understanding of foreign affairs.

Many efforts are being made to educate adults in the problems of foreign relations. For the long pull, however, a major effort must be made to provide high school students with the necessary education before they leave our public schools. After high school, relatively few individuals pursue a program of education in foreign relations except through mass media. At the present time, less than one-third of all young people of college age go to college. This means that a large proportion of our youth have in our high schools their only opportunity to acquire, in any systematic fashion, an understanding of foreign affairs.

Recognizing the need for a concerted program in foreign relations education, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, early in 1955, sought financial help to develop a nationwide experimental program in international affairs. Later in that year, the Ford Foundation made a sizeable grant to the Association. Science Research Associates expressed its willingness to cooperate on a non-profit basis and was retained as publisher of Project materials. Early in 1956, the NCA Foreign Relations Project was established under the direction of the Experimental Units Committee of the North Central Association through a special Sub-Committee on Foreign Relations Publications.*

The major part of this report deals with the results of an intensive analysis of the

impact of the Foreign Relations Project in secondary school programs. The analysis was made under the direction of a National Advisory Committee made up of I. James Quillen, Dean, School of Education, Stanford University; G. Robert Koopman, Associate Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of Michigan; and William Brish, Superintendent of Washington County Schools, Hagerstown, Maryland.

The attached report contains a detailed summary of their findings. However, since much of the Project's work cannot be measured by tests or surveys, it was felt that many friends of the Project would like to see a less formal report. Therefore, Part I of this report contains a brief summary of activities not covered in the more formal aspects of evaluation presented in Part II.

The objectives of the Foreign Relations Project are: (1) to stimulate interest in and develop better comprehension of basic American foreign policy problems; (2) to help students develop the ability to think critically about international affairs; (3) to develop techniques, methods, and habits which will help high school students maintain an interest in foreign affairs; and (4) to develop accurate, complete, and objective materials which are interesting and comprehensible and which provide the necessary background for understanding current world problems.

Viewed as training for citizenship, the general aims of the study of international relations are to make democratic decisions more wisely. While few social studies teachers would question these general aims, little agreement exists among them on what the citizen needs to understand about international affairs or how such understanding can be brought about.

The efforts of the Foreign Relations Project center around helping teachers and students gain deeper insight into the relationships among nation-states. To accomplish this objective, the Project encourages schools to provide their students with curricular opportunities for the systematic study of international rela-

* The members of this Committee are: J. E. Stonecipher, Associate Professor of Education, Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa, Chairman; Bruce Guild, Superintendent of Schools, Iron Mountain, Michigan; John Haefner, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa; Neal Wherry, Principal, Lawrence High School, Lawrence, Kansas; Stella Kern, Chairman, Social Studies Department, Waller High School, Chicago, Illinois.

tions. As used here, international relations is concerned primarily with the functions and exercise of governmental authority—political interaction at the international level. Although personal, cultural, and economic contacts between nations are increasing in number and importance, political relationships are stressed for the purposes of education for effective citizenship.

A survey conducted by the NCA Committee on Experimental Units during the 1954-55 academic year revealed a great need for objective, authentic teaching materials for the study and discussion of foreign relations. Therefore, as a first step in implementing the program in foreign relations, the NCA Project staff sought to develop carefully prepared materials which could serve as a basis for teaching units on foreign relations.

Largely because international relations is a relatively new and rather loosely defined discipline, and very few teachers have had any preparation in the subject-matter involved, the Foreign Relations Series has become the core of materials and services offered by the Project. Titles which are available during the 1959-60 academic year are:

The United States and World Affairs
American Policy and the Soviet Challenge
Chinese Dilemma
America's Role in the Middle East
America's Stake in Western Europe
Southeast Asia and American Policy

New booklets on Africa and the Soviet Union are scheduled to be completed by spring of 1960.

The booklets have been written by foreign affairs specialists, edited with the high school student in mind, reviewed by prominent political scientists, and tested with success by thousands of social studies teachers. Numerous teaching aids have been developed to accompany the booklets.

Much of the Project's success can be measured in terms of the number of schools enrolled and the number of book-

lets distributed. Since 1956, the number of schools and colleges enrolled in the Foreign Relations Project has increased from 32 to 3,100. The number of social studies teachers using the Foreign Relations Series has increased to over 8,000 and the number of students using the materials to 600,000.

Constant evaluations of Project materials have revealed that (1) the booklets are well suited for high school use; (2) the materials are most useful at the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grade level and in courses in American History, Problems of Democracy, and World History; (3) the framework of basic ideas about international relations which is emphasized in *The United States and World Affairs* and elaborated upon in the other booklets helps the reader make sense out of a complex field of foreign affairs; and (4) the vast majority of cooperating teachers have a growing interest in foreign relations education and plan to continue their use of the materials developed by the Foreign Relations Project.

Further evidence of the widespread acceptance of Project materials as a basis for units or courses in international relations is shown by the number of large city school systems; such as, St. Louis, Los Angeles, Winston-Salem, Seattle, Kansas City, and New York which have placed the Foreign Relations Series on approved or required reading lists. This year the Project and the New York City Board of Education are conducting an experiment in selected New York City high schools. The purpose of the pilot project is to examine various methods and approaches to the study of foreign relations as an integral part of the social studies curriculum.

The 400 Colorado students who gathered for the 26th annual International Relations Conference of Colorado High Schools at the University of Denver (December, 1959) used *Southeast Asia and American Policy* as a basic text for the conference. The Washington International Center, at which many official visitors to the United States receive orientation, has

5,000 copies of *Our American Foreign Policy* for foreign guests. The Committee for International Economic Growth has made extensive use of the *March Classroom Tips*, which describes the Mutual Security Program through maps, charts, and graphs.

Even more gratifying than the quantities of materials purchased and distributed by nationally known organizations have been those responses from teachers and high school students which indicate a growing awareness of foreign policy problems and heightened interest in foreign relations:

I found myself reading articles in the newspapers about the world situation. I never before felt that it concerned me.

This has been the highlight of my year in history. I learned to think for myself on world affairs in our discussions.

Hard to understand all the new terms, but I'm glad we studied it.

Teachers have said,

I enjoyed using the materials very much. I felt that the use of the booklets was a condensed and efficient way of teaching high school students about the United States problems in the area of foreign policy, an area vital to their growth in becoming better citizens.

The Foreign Relations Project booklets certainly gave students a far more realistic understanding of the complex motivations, issues, and processes of world relations, without over-simplification, than any other student publication we have used. They greatly increased their perception and interest in following world news.

I feel that the study materials were very fine, most challenging and stimulating to the students as well as to the teacher. I can't help but feel that the impact of the study reached far beyond the students involved in the course. Comments from parents and others indicated that the students were discussing what they were learning.

In addition to the development of materials, members of the Project staff visit schools, plan conferences, serve as consultants, and participate in many activities designed to promote teacher and student understanding of American foreign relations. Since 1955, the Project has sponsored, co-sponsored, or participated in almost 300 conferences for teachers.

The Project has been extremely fortunate in receiving cooperation extended by

interested organizations. Many well known groups have contributed tangible assistance in the form of personnel, administrative and clerical help, speakers, materials, exhibits, or facilities for meetings.

Some of the most recent examples of joint ventures in student or teacher seminars are described below.

Illinois Residential Seminar for High School Students, March 22-24, 1959.—Sixty-two outstanding students met at Illinois State Normal University to inquire into the effectiveness of the United States Policy in the Far East. Specialists in the Far East and adult discussion leaders met throughout the two-day seminar with student participants. Readings were provided all participants in advance, and guidelines for discussions accompanied these materials. At the conclusion of the seminar, participants met in plenary session to consider and approve a report which reflected and summarized the conclusions and opinions which emerged from the discussions groups.

Cooperating organizations for the Illinois conference included the New World Foundation, the American Assembly, Columbia University, the Illinois Curriculum Program, the Illinois Council for the Social Studies, the State Department of Public Instruction, the State NCA Committee, and the Foreign Relations Project.

Ohio State University Conference on India, April 24-25, 1959.—A two-day conference was held for 35 selected Ohio juniors and seniors. The topic was "The Effectiveness of United States Policy in India." Indian students served as resource persons. As in the Illinois conference, readings and agenda were distributed to all participants in advance.

A related feature at both the Illinois and the Ohio conference was the selection of one of the junior participants to receive an all-expense scholarship to the 1959-60 around-the-world study tour of the International School of America. The International School of America will provide during the 1959-60 school year 27

high school juniors and seniors the opportunity to travel around the world, study with competent teachers, and live in the homes of nationals as they fulfill requirements for their senior year in a fully accredited high school.

Michigan State University Conference on Africa, June 1-2, 1959.—Thirty college and high school teachers met to discuss "The United States and Africa." As in the other conferences, readings were made available to the participants prior to the conference. The sponsors included the African-American Institute, the American Assembly, Michigan State University, and the Foreign Relations Project. The American Assembly format, including a final plenary session, was followed throughout the conference. Teachers responded enthusiastically to this opportunity to learn more about Africa and to discuss ways of including greater emphasis on the study of this important continent.

The Foreign Relations Project will co-sponsor a similar assembly at the University of Illinois for Illinois teachers and administrators in the spring of 1960.

The Project's efforts in the southern states have been strengthened by help from the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and by a recent social studies clinic. In October, 1959, more than 200 Florida social studies teachers gathered to discuss "The United States and World Affairs." The clinic was co-sponsored by the Florida Council for the Social Studies, the Duval County Council for the Social Studies, and the Foreign Relations Project.

Texas teachers will gather in Dallas at Southern Methodist University for a seminar on the Far East. The Dallas World Affairs Center, Southern Methodist University, and the Foreign Relations Project have pooled efforts for this December gathering.

Summer workshops.—The Graduate Training and Research Program in International Relations of the Department of Political Science at Northwestern University, the School of Education of Northwestern University, and the NCA Foreign

Relations Project co-sponsored a three-week workshop in international relations during the 1958 and 1959 summer sessions. The majority of the program was devoted to the presentation and analysis of substantive materials on various foreign areas, as well as to theories and systems of analysis of political problems in the international area. Several of the sessions were devoted to considering the feasibility of translating research designs into teaching devices. Dr. George Blanksten, Professor of Political Science, Northwestern University, who has served as coordinator of the summer workshops, states, "We have opened up a new bridge joining the conduct of research in this field with the reporting of the findings in the classroom." The workshop will be repeated in 1960.

During the 1959 summer session, similar workshops of a more limited duration were offered at San Francisco State College and Winona State College, Minnesota.

In the future the Project hopes to place even greater emphasis upon conferences, seminars, and workshops. Adequate programs of foreign relations education cannot emerge without thorough in-service and pre-service training for high school teachers. The results of past endeavors have shown that teachers welcome and need opportunities to shorten the lag between current scholarship and high school practice.

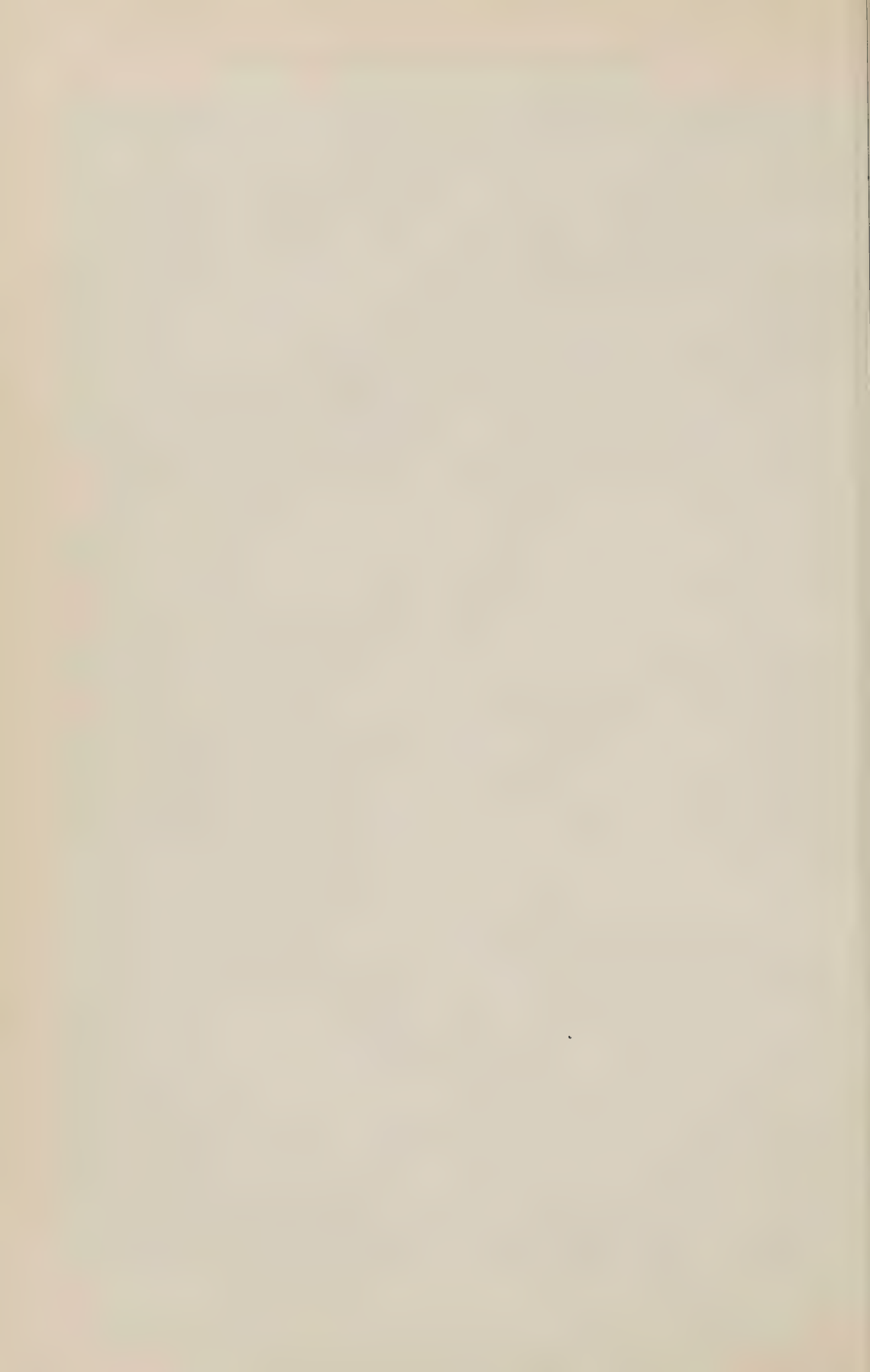
The broad view of Project efforts is most impressive. The response of teachers, students, and world affairs specialists has been most favorable. The involvement very quickly of many schools and the ensuing stepping up of the tempo of enrollment made the NCA Foreign Relations Project one of the major new forces in secondary social studies education and brought it to the attention of most professional people in this area. All surveys made over the past three years point to the same conclusion—that there is a great amount of good will felt toward the Project at all professional levels of education. Even more important, there is a keen de-

sire among these people for the Project to succeed. Foreign Relations instruction is now almost universally considered to be a most desirable element in the high school social studies curriculum.

A majority of school administrators reported that participation in the Project has resulted in increased teacher interest in foreign relations education. Most administrators also agreed that they could observe heightened student awareness of international relations. Although the initiative has been gained there is still much to be done to consolidate and strengthen the teaching of foreign relations.

The teaching of foreign relations continues to take place largely in special proj-

ects or in course offerings limited to relatively few students. Until international relations is established as a permanent part of the social studies curriculum and specific courses, units, or periods of time are allotted, considerable effort is needed to insure not only that the progress made to date is not lost, but also that schools continue to develop additional opportunities for their pupils to study foreign relations. The continued development of new materials, services, and programs offered by the Foreign Relations Project requires increasing support from the nation's schools. Clearly, the need for more and better public education in international affairs has never been so crucial.



Evaluation Program of the
North Central Association Foreign Relations Project

PART II: FINAL REPORT
SEPTEMBER 1, 1955–AUGUST 31, 1959

Prepared Under the Direction of the National Advisory Committee on Evaluation for the
North Central Association Foreign Relations Project.

PREFACE

THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON EVALUATION for the North Central Association Foreign Relations Project was set up in 1957 for the purpose of making an independent and objective assessment of the impact of the Project on social studies education and the probability of the Project operating on a self-sustained, commercial basis.

The members of this Committee are I. James Quillen, Dean, School of Education, Stanford University, G. Robert Koopman, Associate Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of Michigan, William Brish, Superintendent of Washington County Schools, Hagerstown, Maryland.

This report has been prepared under the direction of the Committee, by Bertram B. Masia, Director of Research and Development, Science Research Associates, and C. Joseph Hagan, a member of his staff. The report is based on annual and special reports developed at the direction of the Committee. Data were selected from these earlier reports to indicate to what extent the following major objectives of the Project have been achieved during the life of the Ford Foundation grant.

1. To stimulate interest in foreign relations and in the understanding of its importance in our lives.
 2. To develop better comprehension of current basic American foreign policy problems.
 3. To develop techniques, methods, and habits by which students will continue their interest in and their study of foreign affairs.
 4. To develop authoritative materials which are interesting and comprehensible to students and which provide them with an understanding of basic facts involved in current problems.
- I. STIMULATION OF INTEREST IN FOREIGN RELATIONS AND THE UNDERSTANDING OF ITS IMPORTANCE IN OUR LIVES

Number of schools taking part in each stage of the project

The first step in stimulating interest in foreign relations instruction in secondary schools was to involve as many such schools in the Project as possible during the last three complete school years.

School participation in the Project was achieved through a variety of promotional techniques—regional conferences sponsored by the Project, direct mail, talks before professional groups, and individual contacts by the Project's field staff. The phrase, "school participation," simply meant that it would accept free classroom sets of the booklets in the Project's Foreign Relations Series, that it would be willing to use these materials in social studies courses of its own choosing, that it would receive supplementary Project publications, and that it could use professional advice and counsel from the Project's field staff on any educational matter pertaining to the teaching of foreign relations.

The original Project blueprint called for the involvement of 500 schools during the 1956–1957 school year (Stage II), 500 schools during the 1957–1958 school year (Stage III), and 500 schools during the 1958–1959 school year (Stage IV).

Table 1 indicates the number of schools that joined the Project in each of its three major stages.

Table 1 reveals that an impressive total of 2,772 different schools joined the Project during the past three years. The tempo of recruitment increased dramatically from 505 schools in Stage II, to 931 schools in Stage III, and to 1,336 schools in Stage IV.

It is apparent from Table 1 that the original goal of 500 schools per stage was easily met. During Stages III and IV, the original goals of 500 schools were revised upward to 750 and 1,000, respectively, to reflect the Project's desire to stimulate even more interest than had at first been thought possible. These revised goals were also met and surpassed.

Public secondary schools received the major portion of recruiting attention, although it should be noted that parochial and private secondary schools joined the Project in increasingly larger numbers. The 281 parochial and private secondary schools that joined the Project during the three-year period represents a large absolute number of schools despite the fact

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF PROJECT SCHOOLS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL AND STAGE

Type of School	Stage II		Stage III		Stage IV		Total	
	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.
Secondary (total)	496	98.2	852	91.5	1,265	94.6	2,613	94.3
Public	463	91.7	723	77.7	1,117	83.6	2,303	83.1
Parochial	13	2.6	63	6.8	102	7.6	178	6.4
Private	8	1.6	56	6.0	39	2.9	103	3.7
Teachers College	12	2.4	10	1.1	7	0.5	29	1.0
Laboratory Schools								
Junior High School	4	0.8	17	1.8	18	1.3	39	1.4
Colleges	5	1.0	62	6.7	53	4.0	120	4.3
Total	505	100.0	931	100.0	1,336	100.0	2,772	100.0

that they constitute only 11 percent of all Project secondary schools.

What were the geographical patterns of recruiting? These patterns are presented in Table 2 by regional accrediting associations and stage.

Since the grant by the Ford Foundation was to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the emphasis in the recruiting of 500 schools during Stage II was in the nineteen-state area of this accrediting association. Only token recruiting during this stage was made in the other four accrediting regions.

Participation began to take on a representative national character in Stages III and IV. Dramatic rises in both the absolute number and percentage of schools are noted for the Middle States region during Stages III and IV, for the New England

region during Stage III, for the Southern region during Stage IV, and for the Northwest region during Stages III and IV. The change toward a more representative national sampling of schools can be seen in Table 2 by comparing the percentage distribution of schools by region in Stage II with the percentage distribution of all three stages. Whereas 83 percent of all participating schools in Stage II were in the North Central Association area, this figure dwindled to 54 percent in Stage III and 41 percent in Stage IV. By comparison, the populous and important Middle States and Northwest regions combined representation had risen from 9 percent in Stage II to 36 percent in Stage III to 45 percent in Stage IV.

Thus the ratio of North Central Association and non-North Central Associa-

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF PROJECT SCHOOLS WITHIN ACCREDITING ASSOCIATION REGIONS AND BY PROJECT STAGE

Accrediting Region	Stage II		Stage III		Stage IV		Total	
	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.
North Central	421	83.3	499	53.6	541	40.5	1,461	52.7
Middle States	26	5.1	241	25.9	377	28.2	644	23.2
New England	22	4.4	87	9.3	57	4.3	166	6.0
Southern	18	3.6	10	1.1	142	10.6	170	6.1
Northwest	18	3.6	94	10.1	219	16.4	331	11.9
Total	505	100.0	931	100.0	1,336	100.0	2,772	100.0

TABLE 3
SIZE OF PROJECT SCHOOLS IN EIGHT SELECTED STATES

State	Median Size	Pct. Under 199	Pct. 200- 499	Pct. 500- 999	Pct. 1,000- 1,999	Pct. 2,000- 2,999	Pct. Over 3,000
Colorado	400	26	35	12	12	12	3
Illinois	950	9	20	26	24	14	7
Iowa	470	11	41	22	22	4	—
Kansas	220	48	18	14	14	2	4
Michigan	785	10	17	42	17	10	4
Minnesota	900	7	7	43	32	11	—
Missouri	1,100	7	11	26	48	7	—
Wisconsin	750	8	22	29	29	12	—
Total	700	17	22	25	24	9	3

tion schools for all three stages combined is approximately 50:50.

Based on United States Office of Education secondary enrollment figures for 1953-54, the seven states with secondary enrollment in excess of 250,000 students contribute 37 percent of the Project schools. Only one of these states (Texas) has practically no schools in the Project. The six states with secondary enrollments between 150,000 and 250,000 furnish an additional 22 percent of all Project schools.

The Middle Atlantic, Pacific, and South Atlantic areas, in that order, showed the largest stage-by-stage increases in the proportion of participating schools.

The three most populous areas of the country are also traditionally the areas of educational leadership. These are the Middle Atlantic, East North Central, and Pacific areas. For all stages, 56 percent of all Project schools come from these three regions.

To what extent has the Project succeeded in involving the larger schools? Two studies were conducted to throw light on this question.

In the first study the entire sample of 318 schools in the eight major states of Stage II was employed to provide distributions by school size. These distributions are presented in Table 3, along with the state median for Project schools.

Although it has not been possible to obtain reliable comparable data for all secondary schools in these states, an inspection of Table 3 reveals that the Project involved the larger schools in each state. Three out of five Project schools in these eight states had an enrollment of at least 500, with the overall median being 700 students.

A questionnaire sent out in August, 1959, to a representative random sample of 555 Project schools reveals that for all stages combined the median size of Project schools is 645, whereas the national median is 176. Using average enrollment as a basis for comparison, the Project school mean is 811, and the national mean is 479.

These data suggest that the Project has succeeded in involving a large number of schools. This is most desirable because large schools are more likely to experiment with the curriculum than small schools, and large schools are more apt to have diversified course offerings in which project materials can be utilized. The large potential audiences of teachers and students are, of course, assumed.

One important measure of impact of the Project on participating schools is the sale of Project materials. Involvement of a school was achieved by giving it free classroom sets of Project booklets. It was expected that the use of these materials would lead to the purchase of additional

TABLE 4
SALES ANALYSIS OF BOOKLETS BY YEAR AND REGION

Region	Stage III		Stage IV		Percent Change	
	Sales	Schools	Sales	Schools	Sales	Schools
North Central	\$7,551	238	\$15,524	439	106	84
Middle Atlantic	2,354	97	4,374	87	86	(10)
South	112	5	999	51	—	—
West	1,233	20	4,019	132	226	560
New England	3,163	97	4,374	87	38	(10)

copies of these titles and the purchase of classroom sets of new titles.

During the first major stage of the Project (Stage II) there was no reason for schools to purchase booklets. Therefore, sales analysis is limited to Stages III and IV.

The sales forecast and the actual total sales during Stages III and IV are as follows:

	<i>Forecast</i>	<i>Actual</i>
Stage III	\$15,000	\$15,157
Stage IV	\$30,000	\$36,384

Thus the sales forecast in each stage was reached and surpassed.

The number of different schools purchasing booklets in each stage is given below, along with an estimate of the total number of schools that could be expected to purchase booklets during that stage.

	(1) <i>Total No. of Pur- chasers</i>	(2) <i>Potential No. Pur- chasers</i>	<i>Percent (1):(2)</i>
Stage III	371	400	93
Stage IV	739	1,250	59

During Stage III almost all schools that were expected to purchase booklets did so.

In Stage IV, on the other hand, the proportion of potential purchasers dropped from 93 percent to 59 percent. This latter figure is probably on the conservative side because the assumption is made that every potential purchaser should make an annual purchase.

How do the annual sales figures break down according to region and number of schools purchasing booklets? Table 4 provides the information pertinent to this question. The regions with the most vigorous sales growth are the North Central, and the Western, each of which showed sizeable increases with respect to both number of schools making purchases and amount of materials purchased.

A crucial question which cannot be answered by an inspection of Table 4 is: Do school purchases tend to continue from year to year? Table 5 attempts to provide a partial answer to this question. In this table, sales are divided in each of the two sales-years according to when the school entered the Project.

It would appear from Table 5 that the large increase in sales recorded in any one year is traceable to purchases by new schools at the time of joining, or im-

TABLE 5
SALES ANALYSIS ACCORDING TO LENGTH OF TIME OF PROJECT PARTICIPATION

Stage	Total Schools Entering	Total Sales			
		1957-58	Schools	1958-59	Schools
II (1956-57)	505	\$7,415	209	\$ 6,597	162
III (1957-58)	931	6,997	238	9,470	244
IV (1958-59)	1,275	—	—	13,659	463

TABLE 6
NUMBER OF EACH TITLE SOLD BY STAGE

Booklet	Originally Published in Stage	No. Sold in Stage		Percent Increase
		III	IV	
<i>American Foreign Policy</i>	I	11,843	16,685	41
<i>Germany</i>	I	4,431	7,619	72
<i>Soviet Union</i>	II	6,488	13,255	104
<i>China</i>	II	4,965	9,863	99
<i>Middle East</i>	III	9,874	13,033	32
<i>Western Europe</i>	IV	—	11,511	—
<i>Southeast Asia</i>	IV	—	10,511	—

mediately thereafter, and that the longer a school is in the Project, the less likely it is that it will continue to make purchases. The dollar volume and the number of Stage II school purchases in 1958-59 were less than in 1957-58. Thus, two years after joining the Project, proportionately fewer schools were buying booklets and in smaller dollar volume per purchase than they had done the previous year.

These observations based on the data in Table 5 must be tentative, because the total sales volume is relatively small and the period under analysis is quite short. Definitive trends can only be seen after Stages V and VI.

Another aspect of the sales analysis pertains to the effect of new booklets on older titles. Do new booklets compete with older titles? Table 6 indicates the total number of copies of each booklet title that was sold during each stage.

All five titles that were available in both Stages II and III showed increased sales in Stage IV as compared to Stage III.

It should be noted that the New Eng-

land area was chosen as the experimental sales area. The requirement for every New England school joining the Project was to purchase two classroom sets of booklets. This plan was in force during Stages III and IV. To implement this plan, an Eastern Regional Coordinator was engaged for this two-year period.

Another method of stimulating sales was instituted during Stage IV by reducing the number of free classroom sets North Central, Western, and Southern schools received upon joining the Project. The practice of giving two sets of booklets continued in the Middle Atlantic area.

What were the immediate effects of these two practices upon Stage IV schools during their first year of participation? A special analysis was made of all purchases by Stage IV schools during Stage IV through May 30, 1959. This analysis is summarized in Table 7.

Although the average amount of the purchase is quite uniform among the regions of the country, the percent of schools making purchases was highest (60 percent) in the New England area, and the percent of schools making purchases was lowest (26 percent) in the Middle Atlantic area. An inevitable conclusion that can be drawn from the data in Table 7 is that the fewer the classroom sets of booklets that are given away at the time of joining the Project, the larger is the proportion of schools that will make purchases at that time.

Aside from purchases, what evidence is there that schools continue to use the Project booklets? If they do not reorder in quantity, it may be due to the fact that

TABLE 7
BOOKLET SALES FOR STAGE IV SCHOOLS (JULY 1, 1958-MAY 30, 1959)

Region	Stage IV Schools	Booklet Sales	Schools Purchasing	Percent Schools Purchasing	Average Purchase Per School
North Central	541	\$5,414	183	34	\$30.00
Middle Atlantic	370	2,116	98	26	22.00
West	220	2,237	89	40	25.00
South	120	771	44	37	18.00
New England	60	2,856	49	60	24.00

they are no longer using Project materials. Replies from a 20 percent representative random sample of all Project principals indicate that approximately 5 percent of all Project schools are no longer using Project materials. This confirms an identical finding of the Stage II Evaluation Study.

Number of teachers taking part in each stage of the project

One direct measure of the vitality and growth potential of the Project is the number of social studies teachers using the Project materials and, more important, whether these numbers are increasing over a period of time.

A survey of 321 Stage II schools in Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, and Wisconsin, conducted at the end of Stage II revealed that there were approximately two teachers in each school who were using Project materials. The average number varies from state to state. This ranged from 1.6 in Kansas to 2.4 in Wisconsin. Other factors affect these figures, such as the size of the schools and whether the Project materials are used in required or elective subjects. When this sample of 321 Stage II schools is classified according to size, we find that the size of the school does affect the number of teachers that are involved in the Project.

<i>School Enrollment</i>	<i>Average No. Project Teachers per School</i>
Under 199	1.2
200-499	1.7
500-999	1.9
1,000-1,999	2.3
2,000-2,999	2.8

A recent questionnaire sent to a 20 percent random sample of all Project principals indicates that this nine-state figure of approximately two teachers per school is somewhat higher than for all Stage II schools. A tabulation of reports from only Stage II principals indicates that on the average 1.6 teachers were using Project materials during the 1956-57 school year.

Table 8 deals with the crucial matter

TABLE 8
AVERAGE NUMBER OF TEACHERS PER SCHOOL
BY TEACHING YEAR AND YEAR OF
ENTRANCE INTO PROJECT

Entered Project	Average No. Teachers in Teaching Year		
	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59
1956-57	1.6	2.5	3.5
1957-58	—	1.7	1.9
1958-59	—	—	2.3

of increase in the number of Project teachers over a period of time. It indicates that there has been a steady rise in the number of teachers using Project materials. The rise in the number of Stage III teachers from the 1957-58 to the 1958-59 school years is not so dramatic as for Stage II schools; yet it is in a positive direction.

Number of students taking part in each stage of the project

It was always difficult to obtain reliable figures on how many students actually used the Project materials in each stage. A survey of 269 Stage II schools revealed that on the average there were 136 students per school in 4.9 sections using the Project booklets. Projecting this average figure to all 496 secondary schools in Stage II, about 67,000 secondary (grades 9 to 12) students took part in the Project during that stage.

Using total school enrollment of the Project schools in a nine-state North Central area, the following figures indicate the proportion of all students in these schools who were exposed to the Project materials:

<i>State</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Wisconsin	21
Kansas	19
Minnesota	18
Iowa	17
Michigan	14
Colorado	13
Missouri	13
Indiana	11
Illinois	11
Total	15

TABLE 9

PROJECTED NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN ALL SCHOOLS

Stage	During Academic Year		
	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59
II	60,000	62,000	60,000
III	—	120,000	124,000
IV	—	—	178,000
Total	60,000	182,000	362,000
Average all schools	118	127	130

The higher proportion in some states is in part due to greater interest in the Project, but may also be related to state-wide requirements in the social studies. For example, the high rate of involvement in Minnesota schools is in part due to the fact that 55 percent of the Project sections in that state were composed of seniors in the Problems course—a state requirement for seniors. Where state-wide requirements exist in American History or in the Problems course, it is to be expected that if schools decide to use the Project booklets in these required courses they will want to include as many sections as possible.

A check on the Stage II estimate was made in the summer of 1959 with a 20 percent random representative sample of all Project schools. The social studies departments in these schools were asked to check their records of all classes during the past three school years that used Project materials. Table 9 projects the total Project student population by stage and academic year.

Although the absolute number of students using Project materials rose dramatically from year to year, this was due entirely to the continual recruitment of new schools. Table 9 indicates that there is no overall increase in the number of students from year to year in a given block of schools. Stage II schools involved the same number of students in the third year of participation as they had in the first year. For both Stage II and Stage

III schools there was a slight increase of only 3 percent from the first year to the second. This increase may simply be traceable to increases in total school enrollment.

The last row of figures in Table 9 indicates that the average number of students using the booklets in a Project school rose slightly from 118 in 1956-57 to 127 in 1957-58 to 130 in 1958-59. In view of the fact that the number of teachers using Project materials rose from year to year (see Table 8), it is quite likely that teachers, over a period of time, are using the booklets in fewer sections.

Sales figures appear to corroborate the data in Table 9. The per-student expenditure for Project materials in 1958-59 was approximately nine cents. A portion of this figure was devoted to replacing worn copies. Most of the balance was used to purchase new titles which the school did not have. Only a small proportion of purchases was devoted to expanding stocks of existing titles so that more students could use them.

Increased student interest in foreign affairs as a result of studying that subject

A rough check on student reactions to the Project materials was made by asking 183 teachers in Stage II schools to judge whether their students liked or disliked the booklets. Each teacher was asked to try to keep his own personal reaction to the booklets out of his judgment.

The distribution of the teachers' judgments of students' reactions follows.

	Percent
"In general, my students <i>liked</i> the booklets."	83
"In general, my students <i>disliked</i> the booklets."	9
No answer	8

After rating their students' reactions, the teachers were invited to comment on these reactions. All of the comments about students disliking the booklets had to do with the difficulty level of the booklets (these were mainly students in tenth grade World History classes), or indi-

TABLE 10
AVERAGE NUMBER OF TITLES USED PER COURSE*

Entered Project	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	Overall Average	Percent of Schools Reordering after Receipt of Initial Set(s)
Stage II (56-57)	2.7	3.5	4.3	5.1	61
Stage III (57-58)	—	3.1	3.5	4.3	53
Stage IV (58-59)	—	—	3.1	3.1	30

* Based on Reports by school principals and social studies department heads.

cated a generalized dislike of all school text materials.

Reproduced below are several typical comments among the 83 percent of the teachers who had rated their students as having "liked" the booklets.

Most students were impressed that such a "dull" subject could be so interesting. They acknowledged a greater respect for the individuals directly connected with our foreign policy and more sympathetic understanding for peoples of the world whose interests are in conflict with ours at any given time or place.

It was the most gratifying experience I have had to see the development of attitudes. A couple of students remarked, "I don't remember learning so much in a course as in this year's history." Students kept bringing in clippings about Adenauer's visit and commented on his search for a guaranteed continuance of our foreign policy. I gave the class the choice of completing the booklet or spending the last week-and-a-half in reviewing for final exams. The vote was unanimous for the former.

The booklets were thought provoking, so much that students began a real, sincere appraisal of our foreign policy through their daily reading of current periodicals and newspapers.

Many of my poorer students dislike any history subject because they have not had particular background to appreciate it. They called these booklets "dry," but their interest in class would indicate that the materials were not as dry to them as they would have you think.

Increased student awareness of the importance of foreign affairs as a result of studying that subject

Obtaining reliable information on whether student awareness of the importance of foreign affairs had increased as a direct result of contact with Project

materials was quite difficult. Several attempts were made to estimate changes in awareness from areas of student behavior such as increase in recreational reading of books on foreign countries and foreign affairs, increase in use of news magazines and metropolitan or national newspapers, and sharpened awareness of prominent figures in foreign affairs. Twelve sections of juniors in American History were chosen in Project schools in the spring of 1956 in a variety of communities and geographical areas. Questionnaires were given to the students prior to the introduction of an eight-week foreign relations unit and were readministered two weeks after the close of the unit. No significant results were obtained. It was quite apparent that not enough time was allowed between assessments to enable new awarenesses to take form.

An indirect measure of an increase in student awareness is the number of titles used in social studies courses. Table 10 indicates a rise in the number of titles used from year to year.

Another source of information about student interest and awareness is provided by the comments by members of the school administration. In the fall of 1959, principals and chairmen of social studies departments in Project schools were asked, to indicate to what extent they thought the Project materials had affected the awareness of participating students.

Very few administrators reported little or no change; rather, the vast majority—approximately 75 percent—stated that

they could observe heightened interest and awareness. The coded responses suggest that the longer a school is in the Project the more apt are there to be visible and significant changes in student awareness. A much larger proportion of Stage II school administrators reported "great changes" than did administrators from Stage III and Stage IV schools.

Increased teacher interest in foreign affairs as a result of Experiences with Project Materials

An assessment of intentions to continue to use the booklets serves both as an indirect measure of satisfaction and as a rough measure of the vigor of the Project.

In June, 1957, a random representative sample of Stage II Project teachers were asked, "Do you intend to continue to use the foreign relations booklet next year?" The distribution of their responses is: yes, 85 percent; no, 5 percent; no answer, 10 percent.

Representative reasons of those intending to use the booklets again are:

They have weaknesses but they are the best available. They are easily read and understood. I believe they do much to stimulate thinking. I should like to try them with a good class that could spend at least ten weeks on the unit in foreign relations. Many of my students talked so much about the booklets that their parents wanted to read them and sixty-eight bought all four booklets. They ordered them after they had read them the first time. That, I believe, shows the interest the booklets stimulated. The chance to order was started by a petition started in one class and was not instigated by me.

The approach used in the booklets is good enough to interest the gifted students but not too ethereal to eliminate the very slow learners. The students generally enthusiastic about the methods employed and the materials, and, by and large, urged me to make

certain that they were utilized again next spring.

Because it is excellent contemporary material. Because it teaches the student to think critically and analyze carefully. Because each student is called upon to arrive at opinions and decisions which should assist and train him to be a good American citizen. Likewise it gives him concepts which should lead to the development of intelligent world understanding so that they may become, in the words of Thomas Paine, "I want to be a citizen of the town called the world."

In September, 1959, principals and social studies department heads of Project schools in all three major stages were asked to indicate whether they had observed changes in the interest level of their Project teachers as a result of using the Project materials. Table 11 summarizes the coded responses by stage.

Table 11 indicates that a majority of school administrators report that participation in the Project by their teachers has resulted in increased teacher interest in foreign relations education. Again, Stage II schools are reporting greater increases than Stage III and Stage IV schools. In view of the great interest expressed directly by Stage II teachers after their first year of participation, we should not leap to the conclusion that interest increases with use. The greater interest reported for Stage II teachers may result from the fact that those who joined the Project in that first major stage have always been the most sympathetic and enthusiastic about the Project and its objectives. The June, 1957, survey of Stage II teachers did indicate that approximately 50 percent of them had been teaching foreign relations prior to joining the Project.

TABLE 11
JUDGMENTS BY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS ON CHANGES IN TEACHER INTEREST LEVEL

Stage School Entered	Percent Reporting Changes				
	Great	Moderate	Little	None	Couldn't Say
II	50	22	17	—	11
III	41	22	15	3	19
IV	28	40	6	4	22

II. DEVELOPING BETTER
COMPREHENSION OF CURRENT
BASIC AMERICAN FOREIGN
POLICY PROBLEMS

Student acquisition of a body of information about foreign relations and ability of students to handle foreign affairs reading materials

A study of the effect of Project materials upon learning was conducted in the spring of 1959 to test the hypothesis that students using Project materials would perform better on tests of critical skills than students not exposed to Project materials.*

In February, 1959, 72 Project and 72 non-Project schools were randomly selected from the master list of schools that appeared in the July, 1958, issue of THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY. Each of these schools was invited to participate in this study. The real purpose of the study was veiled completely; all schools were told that it was being conducted to standardize a new foreign relations test. The explanation for the inclusion of the already standardized STEP Social Studies Test was in terms of it being a measure of general social studies achievement and therefore a yardstick against which performance on the foreign relations list could be assessed.

Accompanying the invitation was a questionnaire which requested information that would enable two groups of control schools and the experimental group to be matched on size of school, location of school, courses in which foreign relations was taught (if at all), and the amount of time allotted to a foreign relations unit (if any).

Thirty-one Project schools and 25 non-Project schools responded to the invitation. Some of the responding schools had to be rejected on the basis of the information they gave on the questionnaire. Ten Project and sixteen non-Project schools

in an eight-state area were finally selected for the study design. School-size ranged from 200 to more than 1,300 students. On the basis of questionnaire information, each of the non-Project schools fell into one or the other of two control groups: Control I schools had study units about international relations but did *not* use Foreign Relations Project materials of instruction; Control II schools taught international relations only incidentally, if at all. The total number of students (all 11th or 12th graders) participating was 1,291.

Test administration was in two parts separated by a minimum time of four weeks. The parts were designated Pre- and Post-test sessions, each session consisting of two tests.

Pre-test I refers to the first half (first 35 items) of the STEP Social Studies Test, Form 2A (Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service). This is a general achievement test in the social studies which measures "higher level" outcomes of social studies instruction. Post-test II refers to the second half (last 35 items) of the STEP Social Studies Test, Form 2A.

Pre-test II refers to a test prepared by the Project staff. This test is based on foreign relations problems in critical areas; i.e., aid to India, aid to China, Soviet-American relations, American foreign policy, and Red China. The test is composed of seven reading passages and twenty questions. Each of the passages "sets the stage" for questions concerning a critical area of foreign relations. However, the passages do not contain the complete answer to any specific question. The ability to choose the correct answer to every question depends upon an interaction of (1) knowledge and understanding of foreign affairs and (2) ability to understand the reading selection.

Post-test II is equivalent to Pre-test II with respect to length, contents, and level of difficulty. This test was first administered to a group of 200 11th and 12th grade students at J. Sterling Morton High School in Cicero, Illinois, to check equivalence to Pre-test II.

* Although it was planned to study changes in students' attitudes and beliefs concerning foreign relations, additional testing time for this purpose could not be obtained from the schools that took part in this study.

TABLE 12(a)

MEANS AND STANDARDIZATIONS OF FOUR TESTS TAKEN BY CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

		Pre-test I (35 items)	Post-test I (35 items)	Difference Post-test I Pre-test I	Pre-test II (20 items)	Post-test II (20 items)	Difference Post-test II Pre-test II
Project*	\bar{x}	22.81	22.99	+ .18	8.68	9.51	+0.83
N=416	σ	4.96	5.55		3.22	2.70	
Control I	\bar{x}	21.56	20.63	- .93	8.17	8.61	+0.44
N=201	σ	5.01	5.63		3.01	3.03	
Control II	\bar{x}	20.68	20.33	- .35	7.42	8.52	+1.10
N=369	σ	5.42	5.50		3.23	2.81	

* Key: Project: Participating school with foreign relations unit.

Control I: Non-Project school with foreign relations unit.

Control II: Non-Project school with only incidental instructions in foreign relations.

TABLE 12(b)

TWO-PART ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR THREE GROUPS OF SUBJECTS ON THE
Sequential Test of Educational Progress AND THE *NCA Foreign Relations Test*

<i>Sequential Test of Educational Progress</i>				
Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F*
Between samples	77.50	2	38.75	1.59
Within samples	23,955.23	983	24.37	
Total	24,032.73	985		
<i>NCA Foreign Relations Test</i>				
Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F*
Between samples	56.75	2	28.38	1.83
Within samples	15,223.33	983	15.49	
Total	15,280.08	985		

* F ratio required for significance at: 5 percent level—3.00; 1 percent level—4.62.

All necessary materials and administration directions for Pre-tests I and II were sent to the schools participating in this study on April 1. Four weeks later, the materials and administration instructions for Post-tests I and II were sent to the schools. The administration procedure for Post-testing was identical to Pre-testing with one exception: Pre-test II was to be readministered as the last portion of the Post-testing administration. This change in administration procedure provided ad-

ditional data for a reliability check of Pre-test II items.

All test results were returned by mid-June. The number of student test returns used in the evaluation was 986, an attrition of 24% from 1,291, the expected number. This was due to student absence and procedural errors in test administration that rendered some data useless.

Tables 12(a) and 12(b) summarize the basic data for this study.

These computations do not confirm the

hypothesis that students who used Project materials would make greater score gains on a special foreign relations test than students who did not use Project materials.

There were significant differences among groups at the outset on both the STEP test and the foreign relations test, the Project group showing the highest mean score on each test. Then both control groups showed declines, and the Project group a slight increase, for the second STEP testing. However, in the most crucial area of growth on the foreign relations test, the Control II group showed the greatest amount of gain despite the very opposite prediction that it would show the least amount of gain as a result of having, at the very most, only incidental instructions in foreign relations.

Time did not permit the investigation of the reasons for this unexpected turn of events because the post-testing took place in the last weeks of the school year. The only explanation that appears to make sense is that instruction in foreign relations did take place in Control II schools as an effect of the testing program.

Time may have been on the side of the Project students. It is naive to assume that the new ideas and concepts that these students were exposed to in the Project booklets were accepted and absorbed immediately. A more likely explanation is that the skills measured by the foreign relations test would have developed only after the new information had been adequately digested. Unfortunately it was not possible to conduct a six-month or a one-year follow-up testing.

III. DEVELOPING TECHNIQUES, METHODS, AND HABITS BY WHICH STUDENTS WILL CONTINUE THEIR INTEREST IN AND THEIR STUDY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS

Techniques and methods used to teach foreign affairs

One of the objectives of a study of Stage II teachers was to provide information on the development of techniques and methods used to teach foreign relations. An

TABLE 13
TEACHING METHODS FOUND TO BE EFFECTIVE

Method	Percent Teachers
Class discussion (of booklet)	40
Panel discussion & forum	22
Written and oral reports—individual and committee (on booklet)	20
Lecture by teacher	16
Research reports	9
Newspaper and magazine articles	8
Question and answer period	8
Visual aids: films, slides, etc.	8
Projects: scrapbook, notebook, etc.	8
Related outside readings	7
Debate	7
Study guide questions	6
Small discussion groups	6
Foreign contacts	5
Map study	4
Project teaching aids	4
Tests	3
Vocabulary study	2
None mentioned	5

analysis of the responses indicated that these teachers expected the Project materials to affect their teaching of foreign relations generally in five major ways: (1) as an aid to planning a foreign relations unit; (2) to extend the teachers' information on the subject; (3) to increase the importance of the role of foreign relations in the curriculum; (4) as material to stimulate an increase in the students' interest in the subject; and (5) to replace current textbooks which were found to be inadequate in this area. Activities using Project materials were listed by the teachers contacted during the course of the study. The activities that were listed by at least 5 percent of the respondents are listed in Table 13.

The following activities were reported by fewer than 5 percent of the respondents: cartoon study, group reading, analysis of editorials for bias, preparation of a study guide, holding a mock United Nations Assembly and a mock United Nations Trusteeship Council, interviewing resource persons, and conducting opinion surveys. The activities listed suggest that responding teachers were planning

activities that encourage maximum student participation in the use of Project materials.

Among those teachers that had established a unit of study on foreign relations it was found that a great deal of attention had been paid to a successful orientation session. A majority of teachers reported success with a variety of approaches.

A major feature of each Project booklet is the emphasis on the problems-approach to the study of foreign relations. This was a central tenet in the Project's philosophy of how foreign relations should be taught. A large number of teachers found the "problems" chapter to be the most challenging part of the text. However, 30 percent of the teachers reported that they were not using this chapter because they found it too difficult to handle.

This survey of Stage II teachers was the only formal study of methods and techniques undertaken. The results obtained cannot be generalized for Stage III and Stage IV teachers. In fact, the Stage II results are probably on the optimistic side because there was somewhat of a bias operating in the return of questionnaires. The more sophisticated teachers who felt they had developed their own methods and techniques were more likely to respond. Two years later the principals of these schools continued to refer with pride to the early participation of their schools.

Change in the teachers' conception of the place of foreign relations instruction in the social studies curriculum due to Project participation

The survey of Stage II teachers revealed that 55 percent of the respondents viewed Project materials as central to their foreign relations unit. They specifically described the roles of the booklets in such terms as "official text," "core of the unit," "basis for class discussion," and "major place."

Forty percent conceived the booklets as being supplementary to a course text, reference materials, and information guides. These data support those of an earlier survey which indicated that 40 to

TABLE 14
HOW BOOKLETS WERE USED IN PROJECT COURSES

Use	Percent of Respondents by Stage		
	II	III	IV
Main book	41	38	43
Supplementary material	45	44	47
Reference only	14	18	10

50 percent of the participating teachers assign the booklets to a peripheral role. Two conditions may cause this relatively high peripheral usage: (1) Initially, all teachers used the booklets as supplements and therefore may be reluctant to change this pattern of instruction. (2) American Government and World History—most commonly the Project sections—are subjects in which it is difficult to establish primary instructional units such as centrally-oriented Project units.

A study of all participating schools in the Fall of 1959 indicated that the percent intending to use Project materials was still about 40 to 50. Responses to a question asking how the booklets were used in Project courses were coded and tabulated as shown in Table 14.

This table indicates that there is very little change in the teachers' conception of the use of the booklets from stage to stage. Approximately the same distribution of use is found among Stage IV as among Stage II teachers.

One question was intended to directly gauge the teachers' view of how the Project materials fitted into their teaching plans for a foreign relations unit. Five ways in which the Project materials were expected to affect teaching plans were revealed through an analysis of the responses. Recaps of unstructured responses are shown here:

- (1) Forty-two percent of the teachers expected the booklets to be an organizing aid in planning a foreign relations unit.
- (2) Forty percent expected the booklets to enrich the curriculum by extending their informational basis.
- (3) Twenty-two percent expected Project ma-

terials to enable them to increase emphasis in this area.

- (4) Ten percent expected the materials to be the challenge that would increase the interest and understanding of the student.
- (5) Ten percent expected the booklets to replace currently used materials that are inadequate for foreign relations instruction.

In summary, teachers apparently expect the Project materials to provide them with a means of efficiently teaching foreign relations without the necessity of completely reorganizing course structures or changes in the amount of time to be spent on foreign relations.

Change in time spent on foreign relations due to greater experience with Project materials

Increasing experience with the Project materials should result in a modification of the time spent on foreign relations. To obtain information on this matter a sample of Stage II teachers were asked how using the booklets affected the time spent on foreign relations instruction. This was a particularly good group to ask because most of the teachers in the group had taught foreign relations previously.

Sixty percent of the respondents specifically said that the use of the booklet series had resulted in an increased amount of time spent on foreign relations.

Twenty-five percent of the teachers reported no change in the amount of time allocated to foreign relations instruction. But one-half of these teachers felt the presence of the booklets made for more effective utilization of existing time through better organization and direction of the instructional materials.

Ten percent of the teachers reported that the booklets so enhanced their efforts that less time had to be devoted to foreign relations.

In a follow-up study conducted in the Fall of 1959, a 20 percent random sample of all schools were asked if they planned to increase the time devoted to foreign relations. Table 15 shows the results.

This table indicates that one-half or more of the teachers of each stage reported that they planned no increase in time de-

TABLE 15

INTENTIONS CONCERNING INCREASING THE LENGTH OF THE FOREIGN RELATIONS UNIT

Intention	Percent of Schools by Stage of Project		
	II	III	IV
Yes	28	28	32
No	50	66	52
Undecided	22	6	16

voted to the study of foreign relations. This suggests that the degree of familiarity with Project materials has little bearing on decisions about increasing the amount of time devoted to foreign relations. Schools that have been in the Project for three years have the same pattern of intentions as those that have joined the Project within the last year.

IV. DEVELOPING AUTHORITATIVE MATERIALS WHICH ARE INTERESTING AND COMPREHENSIBLE TO STUDENTS AND WHICH PROVIDE THEM WITH AN UNDERSTANDING OF BASIC FACTS INVOLVED IN CURRENT PROBLEMS

Patterns of usage of Project materials

The survey of Stage II schools indicates that Project materials are most commonly used in the following courses:

1. American History
2. World History
- European History
3. Problems of American Democracy
4. Economics
- Sociology
5. American Government
6. International Relations
7. Geography
8. Civics

Eighty-three percent of all Project sections are in three courses: American History, World History, and the Problems course. All schools in 1959 indicated approximately the same distributions. Although the Project materials are most commonly used in the eleventh-grade American History course and the twelfth-grade Problems course, it is interesting to

note that there is a widespread use of Project materials in the tenth-grade World History course also.

Modification or exclusion of other materials to make room for Project materials

Finding time for foreign relations instruction may require the modification or exclusion of other instructional units. This poses certain problems in regard to the other social studies units.

A survey of principals indicated a great deal of concern in this connection and a general unwillingness to make major modifications.

State curriculum directors indicated the following problems concerning increased foreign relations concentration: the identification of the necessity to be concerned with foreign relations; defining the bounds of foreign relations within the social studies curriculum; manipulating the curriculum to provide a place for foreign relations; criteria for the choice of subject matter; bona fide justification for allocating time to foreign relations instruction; overcoming pressures for additional time for mathematics, science, and foreign languages; and curriculum revision.

City social studies directors commented in the same general vein as the state directors.

These statements suggest that the Project attempt to integrate foreign relations into the social studies curriculum with the least possible disruption.

Intensity of use of Project materials

The fate of the Project greatly depends on the successful integration of the Project materials in the main stream of the teaching effort as well as positive sentiments. Until international relations is established as a permanent part of the social studies curriculum and specific courses, units, or periods of time are allotted, it is unlikely that schools will continue to use or purchase foreign relations materials in sufficient quantities to place the Project on a self-supporting basis or to ensure continual development of new materials

All evidence gathered on this matter

points to the fact that a considerable proportion of Project teachers have not found a way to make the materials central to their instructional efforts.

A random sample of Stage II teachers were asked: "What place do you see for the booklets in your foreign relations unit?" Fifty-five percent of the respondents indicated that they saw a central position for them. By "central" they specifically said that the booklets would serve as the official texts, or they used such terms as "core of the unit," "key position," "basis for class discussion," "important part."

Forty percent planned to assign the booklets a "peripheral" place, conceiving them as being supplementary to the history textbook, as sources of information, as supplementary materials, as reference works, as guides and aids.

A two-year follow-up of these schools reveals that there has been a negative change in the teachers' manner of utilizing Project materials. The breakdown is as follows:

<i>Use of Project Materials</i>	<i>Percent Stage II Schools</i>
Central	41
Supplementary	45
Reference only	14

A final and indirect aspect of teacher interest comes from a canvass of 143 schools of education that voluntarily received Project booklets for use in the training of future social studies teachers. Only one in four of these institutions reported that the Project materials were being referred to or utilized in social studies methods courses.

Extent of use of the Teacher's Guide

The *Teacher's Guide* is a handbook to be used in conjunction with the booklet series. In it are examples of techniques and suggested questions, activities, and bibliographies for each of the booklets.

A survey of all Project schools asked to what extent the *Teacher's Guide* had been used. Table 16 shows the tabulation of their responses:

TABLE 16
EXTENT OF USE OF THE *Teacher's Guide*

Extent	Percent in Stage		
	II	III	IV
Great	28	28	44
Moderate	28	25	22
Very little	33	32	6
Not used	11	15	28

This table suggests that the longer a teacher uses Project materials the less likely he is to use the *Guide*.

Effectiveness of the Teacher's Guide

During the fall of 1959, all Project teachers were asked to judge the effectiveness of the *Teacher's Guide*. Table 17 shows the results.

The significant figures in Table 17 are the sizeable proportions of teachers that either did not use the guide or could not say how effective it had been. This is true of first-year novices as well as third-year veterans.

The *Guide* appears to be most effective when the teacher is making her first attempt to develop a plan for an instructional unit; and less, as she develops a reliable conception of her own.

SUMMARY

So much for the presentation of quantitative information collected to throw light on the Project's objectives and the extent to which they were achieved. In this final section an attempt will be made to range across all of the data to make general comments and suggestions.

TABLE 17
EFFECTIVENESS OF THE *Teacher's Guide*

Judged Effectiveness	Percent of Teachers by Stage		
	II	III	IV
Very	28	28	38
Moderate	27	22	18
Slight	6	9	6
Cannot say and No response	39	41	38

All surveys over the past three years point to the same conclusions. There is a great amount of good will toward the Project at all professional levels of social studies education. Even more important, there is a keen desire among these people for the Project to succeed. Foreign relations instruction is now almost universally considered to be a most desirable element in the high school social studies curriculum.

Although the initiative has been gained, there is still much to be done to consolidate and strengthen the Project's position as a leader in foreign relations education. One challenge still to be fully faced is the provision of effective services to teachers that will help them more effectively to integrate the foreign relations unit into the social studies curriculum and more effectively to teach this subject. The more than one-half of the Project teachers that have assigned the booklets a minor role in foreign relations instruction may be doing so because they have not, on their own, been able to transform this role into a major one.

Adequately servicing almost 3,000 secondary schools is, of course, an impossible task. We would like to see funds made available for the sole purpose of an intensive servicing of a very small group of schools.

The increased sale of booklets is another sign of support and enthusiasm. It is very likely, on the basis of the Stage V first-quarter sales, that the Stage V goal of \$50,000 will be reached. In the absence of a sales force or equally adequate promotional techniques, it is unlikely that an annual increase in sales will continue once the funds for taking in new participants and for publishing new titles are used up. One notes with concern that almost all sales of booklets are traceable to the replacement of worn-out copies and to the purchase of new titles. Inventories of titles used are not being extended in the larger schools. Reports on visits to large schools indicate that in quite a few of them the original classroom set of a par-

ticular title is being used by several teachers in many sections.

The Project has accomplished a great deal in its four-year life. However, there is a danger that the momentum already attained may be arrested as the result of the termination of the Ford Foundation grant. The teaching of foreign relations continues to take place largely in special projects or in course offerings limited to relatively few students. Until interna-

tional relations is established as a permanent part of the social studies curriculum and specific courses, units, or periods of time are allotted, considerable effort will be needed to insure that schools continue to develop additional opportunities for the study of this subject. The development of new materials, services, and programs offered by the Foreign Relations Project requires increasing support from the nation's schools.

Publications of the North Central Association

Unless otherwise indicated, address communications to the Secretary, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

- I. THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, Editorial Office, 4019 University High School Building, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
- II. Publications produced or sponsored by Committees or Subcommittees of the Commission on Research and Service.
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- VI. *A History of the North Central Association*, by CALVIN O. DAVIS, 1945. Pp. xvii+286, \$2.00 plus postage. Available from Editorial Office of THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, 4019 University High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

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